1699

BIHAR AND ORISSA DISTRICT GAZETTEERS.

SHAHABAD.

[Price Rs. 2 as. 10.]

BIHAR AND ORISSA DISTRICT GAZETTEERS

SHAHABAD

BY

L. S. S. O'MALLEY, I.C.S.

REVISED EDITION,

BY

J. F. W. JAMES, I.C.S.

PATNA:

SUPERINTENDENT, BIHAR AND ORISSA GOVT. PRINTING

1924.

AGENTS FOR THE SALE OF BOOKS PUBLISHED BY THE SUPERINTENDENT, GOVERNMENT PRINTING, BIHAR AND ORISSA.

IN INDIA.

(1) Messrs. Thacker Spink & Co., Calcutta.
(2) Messrs. W. Newman & Co., Calcutta.
(3) Messrs. S. K. Lahiri & Co., College Street, Calcutta.
(4) Messrs. R. Cambray & Co., 6 and 8-2, Hastings Street, Calcutta.
(5) Messrs. Thompson & Co., Madras.
(6) Messrs. D. B. Taraporevala Sons & Co., 103, Medow Street, Fort, Post Box No. 18, Bombay.
(7) Messrs. M. C. Sircar & Sons, 75, Harrison Road, Calcutta.
(8) Proprietor of the Newal Kishore Press, Lucknow.
(9) Messrs. M. N. Burman & Co., Bankipore.
(10) Babu Ram Dayal Agarwala, 184, Katra Road, Allahabad.
(11) Standard Literature Co., Ltd., 13-1, Old Court House Street, Calcutta.
(12) Manager of the Indian School Supply Depot, 309, Bow Bazar Street, Calcutta.
(13) Messrs. Butterworth & Co., Ltd., 6' Hastings Street, Calcutta.
(14) Messrs. Ram Krishna & Sons, Anarkali Street, Lahore.
(15) The Oxford Book and Stationery Company, Delhi.

IN ENGLAND.

(1) Messrs. A. Constable & Co., Ltd., 10, Orange Street, Leicester Square, London, W.
(2) Messrs. Kegan, Paul Trench, Trubner & Co., 68-74, Carter Lane, London, E. C., (Oriental Department) and 25, Museum Street, London, W. C.
(3) Mr. B. Quaritch, 11, Grafton Street, New Bond Street, London, W. C.
(4) Messrs. P. S. King & Son, 2 and 4, Great Smith Street, Westminster, London, S. W.
(5) Mr. B. Blackwell, 50-51, Broad Street, Oxford.
(6) Messrs. Deighton Bell & Co., Ltd., Trinity Street, Cambridge.
(7) Messrs. Henry S. King & Co., 65, Cornhill, London, E. C.
(8) Messrs. Grindlay & Co., 54, Parliament Street, London, S. W.
(9) Messrs. W. Thacker & Co., 2, Creed Lane, Ludgate Hill, London, E. C.
(10) Messrs. Luzac & Co., 46, Great Russell Street, London, W. C.
(11) Messrs. Oliver and Boyd, Tweeddale Court, Edinburgh.
(12) Messrs. E. Ponsonby, Ltd., 116, Grafton Street, Dublin.
(13) T. Fisher Unwin, Ltd., 1, Adelphi Terrace, London, W. C.
(14) Messrs. East and West, Ltd., 3, Victoria Street, London, S. W. 1.

ON THE CONTINENT.

(1) M. Ernest Leroux, 28, Rue Bonaparte, Paris, France.
(2) Martinus Nijhoff, The Hague, Holland.
(3) Otto Harrassowitz, Leipzig.
(4) Fredlander and Sohn, Berlin.

Books of Reference.

Fifth Report from the Select Committee on the affairs of the East India Company, London, 1812.

The History, Antiquities, Topography and Statistics of Eastern India, by Dr. F. Buchanan, edited by Montgomery Martin, London, 1838.

The History of Bengal, by Charles Stewart, Calcutta, 1847.

Himalayan Journals, by Sir Joseph Hooker, London, 1854.

The Mutinies in Oudh, by M. R. Gubbins, London, 1858.

Two months in Arrah in 1857, by J. J. Halls, London, 1860.

Vincent Eyre, by Colonel Malleson, Calcutta Review, Vol. XLIV, 1867.

The History of India as told by its own historians, by Sir H. M. Elliot, London, 1873.

Food-grain supply and famine relief in Bihar and Bengal, by Sir A. P. MacDonnell, Calcutta, 1876.

Statistical Account of Bengal, Vol. XII, by Sir W. W. Hunter, London, 1877.

The History of the Indian Mutiny, by Colonel Malleson and Sir John Kaye, London, 1888.

Report of the Committee appointed to enquire into the administration of the Son Canals and Resolution of the Lieutenant-Governor thereon, Calcutta, 1888 and 1890.

A History of the Indian Mutiny, by T. R. E. Holmes, London, 1891.

Travels in India a hundred years ago, by Thomas Twining, London, 1893.

Early English Administration of Bihar, 1781—1785, by J. Reginald Hand, Calcutta, 1894.

Sair-ul-Mutakharin, by Saiyid Ghulam Husain Khan (Raymond's tdanslation, reprainted by Messrs. Cambray & Co., Calcutta).

Report of the Indian Irrigation Commission, Vol. II, Calcutta, 1902.

Report on the Census of Bengal, 1901, by E. A. Gait, I.C.S., F.S.S., Calcutta, 1902.

Riyaz-us-Salatin, by Ghulam Husain Salim, translated by Maulvi Abdus Salam, Calcutta, 1904.

Life of Lord Clive (London, 1776), by Carracioli.

History of the Rise and Progress of the Bengal Army (Calcutta, 1850), by Captain Arthur Broome.

Final Report of the Survey and Settlement operations in Shahabad (Patna, 1918), by J. A. Hubback, I.C.S.

Report on the Census of Bihar and Orissa, 1921, by P. C. Tallents, I.C.S.

Selections from the correspondence of the Revenue Chief of Bihar, 1781—1786 (Patna, 1919).

ABBREVIATIONS.

J. A. S. B.—Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

A. S. I.—Archæological Survey of India.

A. S. B. C.—Archæological Survey, Bengal Circle.

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION (1906).

THE original Gazetteer of Shahabad was compiled by Messrs. D. B. Allen, A. W. Mackie and H. H. Risley, and was published in 1877 in Volume XII of the Statistical Account of Bengal by Sir W. W. Hunter. The present volume is the first of a new series of District Gazetteers, in which a different arrangement has been adopted for the subject-matter and detailed statistics have been relegated to a statistical Appendix. Thanks are due to the many persons who have assisted in the preparation of the volume; and I take this opportunity to acknowledge my obligations to the Hon'ble Mr. W. A. Inglis, Secretary to the Government of Bengal, Public Works Department, and Mr. J. H. Toogood, Superintending Engineer, Son Circle, who have been so good as to revise Chapter VI, and to Messrs. W. A. Marr and G. Milne, I.C.S., Collectors of Shahabad, for the assistance they have given in checking the various articles.

L. S. S. O'M.

PREFACE TO THE REVISED EDITION.

THE Gazetteer of the Shahabad district, the first of the series of Bengal District Gazetteers, was published in 1906. It is now out of print; and it has been decided to issue a revised edition, rather than merely to reprint the original edition, much of which had become out of date. The bulk of the present edition is Mr. O'Malley's work; but the preparation of the record-of-rights for the whole district, which was undertaken in 1907 and completed in 1916, has greatly increased the materials available for the account of agriculture, rents, and land-tenures; and there have been new developments in local self-government, and many other changes since 1906.

Some purely statistical matter will be found in this Gazetteer, of a kind which Mr. O'Malley relegated to his separately published Appendix. The reason for this is that the publication of the separate Appendices may possibly be abandoned, as they were little used.

Diacritical marks have not been generally used in printing vernacular terms, whereby the work of printing has been simplified. If any reader is in doubt as to the correct pronunciation of any place-name used in the text, he will find the diacritical marks in the Index.

The writer desires to express his obligation to Mr. W. Johnston, Magistrate and Collector of the district, for assistance in practically every chapter, and to Mr J. A. Hubback, whose Settlement Report has contributed much to the book (including the map). He owes thanks also to Mr. K. R. Bery, Superintending Engineer, for assistance in Chapter VI; Dr. B. P. Varma, Civil Surgeon (Chapter IV); Mr. Ç.

C. Royston, District Engineer (Chapter X); Mr. G. E. Fawcus, who contributed Chapter XIV; to Mr. N. Senapati, Mr. Piyari Mirza and Babu Atulyadhan Banarji, Subdivisional Officers; and to Rai Bahadur Sachchidanand Sahai, Mr. Shahabuddin Khan, and Babu Bijay Kumar, for assistance in connection with Chapter XV.

J. F. W. J.

PLAN OF CONTENTS.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

CHAPTER I.

PHYSICAL ASPECTS.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE.

CHAPTER IV.

PUBLIC HEALTH.

CHAPTER V.

AGRICULTURE AND FORESTS.

CHAPTER VI.

IRRIGATION.

CHAPTER VII.

NATURAL CALAMITIES.

CHAPTER VIII.

RENTS, WAGES AND PRICES.

CHAPTER IX.

OCCUPATIONS, MANUFACTURES AND TRADE.

CHAPTER X.

MEANS OF COMMUNICATION.

CHAPTER XI.

LAND REVENUE ADMINISTRATION.

CHAPTER XII.

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

CHAPTER XIII.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

CHAPTER XIV.

EDUCATION.

CHAPTER XV.

GAZETTEER.

APPENDICES.

GAZETTEER

OF THE

SHAHABAD DISTRICT.

CHAPTER I.

PHYSICAL ASPECTS.

THE district of Shahabad, which forms the western portion of the Patna Division, is situated between 24° 31′ and 25° 46′ north latitude, and between 83° 19′ and 84° 51′ east longitude. It contains a total area of 4,353 square miles, and a population of 1,816,821. The principal civil station, which is also the most populous town in the district, is Arrah, situated in 25° 34′ north latitude and 84° 40′ east longitude. The district is bounded on the north by Ghazipur and Ballia in the United Provinces and by Saran in Bihar; on the east by the districts of Patna and Gaya; on the south by Palamau; and on the west by the districts of Mirzapur and Ghazipur in the United Provinces. On the north the boundary is marked by the Ganges and on the east by the Son, the two rivers uniting in the north-eastern corner of the district. The Karamnasa is the boundary with the United Provinces on the west, from near its source to its junction with the Ganges near Chausa; while the Son separates it from Palamau on the south.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

Boundaries.

The origin of the name Shahabad is doubtful, but it is said to be derived from the fact that, after his victory over the Afghan rulers of the Province in 1529 A.D., the Emperor Babar pitched his camp in Arrah and there proclaimed his dominion over Bihar. In commemoration of this event, the place was called Shahabad, or the city of the Emperor; and this name was applied subsequently to the *sarkar* within which the town was included.

Origin of name.

Natural divisions.

Shahabad is divided physically into three distinct regions, the first of which consists of an extensive low-lying alluvial plain about 550 square miles in area, forming the north of the district and lying between the river Ganges and the embankment of the main line of the East Indian Railway. It extends to the boundaries of the district on the east and west, and has evidently been formed by the recession of the Ganges from its ancient course, which flowed, many centuries ago, in nearly a straight line from Arrah to Buxar. In the northern portion of this belt of country the low lands lying along the Ganges are subject to inundation almost every year from the overflow of the river; and this riparian tract, being fertilized by the rich deposit of silt left by the receding waters, is one of the principal wheat-growing areas of Bihar.

The second region comprises the great body of the district and is some three thousand square miles in extent. This is also a flat country of tertiary and alluvial origin, but its formation is of high antiquity compared with the river-side land described above. It is for the most part very fertile, highly cultivated and densely populated. Its soil is generally a very tenacious clay intermixed with coarse sand; but on the east the soil is considerably lighter, and in the south towards the hills mould intermixed with ash is met with. This large tract, nearly the whole of which is irrigated by an elaborate system of canals, extends south of the railway to the foot of the plateau.

THE KAIMUR HILLS.

The third region is the hilly country, called the Kaimur plateau, which comprises about eight hundred square miles and extends along the southern boundary of the district in an undulating table-land, which at Rohtasgarh attains the height of 1,490 feet above the sea. Much of this tract is covered with rock and jungle and is incapable of cultivation; it is unprotected by irrigation, the soil yields poor and precarious crops, and the population is very sparse. The boundaries of the hills, though well defined, are very irregular and often indented by the deep gorges scoured out by hill streams. Rising abruptly from the plains, their sides present sheer precipices with masses of debris at their feet; while their summits simulate a table-land broken by scores of saucer-shaped valleys, each a few miles in diameter, with a rich deposit of vegetable mould in the centre, which produces excellent rice crops. They are an

offshoot of the great Vindhyan range and have been described in the records of the Geological Survey as follows :—

" The escarpments are everywhere lofty and bold, and the high lands west of Rohtas have an elevation varying from 1,000 to 1,400 feet. Their surface is uneven, being rocky, and covered with thick forest jungle; amongst the glades feed herds of cattle, which form the chief wealth of the inhabitants. The drainage, which here as elsewhere is thrown north by the Vindhyan crest, falls by a series of waterfalls into the long winding gorges, which convey it to the alluvial plains of the Ganges.

" The most prominent features of the Vindhyan area are the numerous escarpments, which stamp it with a geographical character peculiarly its own. The commonest form, where the lower portion of the scarp is shale, and the upper sandstone, exhibits an undercliff of about 30° inclination, with a vertical precipice above, the relative dimensions depending chiefly on the ratio of shale to sandstone. When the latter is absent, the scarp preserves a uniform slope from top to bottom; while the boldest precipices are found where the scarp is entirely sandstone, the undercliff being then made up of a *talus* from above. Along some lines of scarp, outlying hills are very frequent, whose elevation is equal to, or greater than, that of the main scarp, according as the startification is perfectly horizontal or dips gently from the spur. On such eminences, either wholly or semi-detached, have been constructed the hill forts which once played a prominent part in Indian history.

" The gorges, which receive the rivers after their descent from the plateau, should also be mentioned in a description of the physical aspect of the country. After a clear drop of two to six hundred feet, the water plashes into a deep pool, scooped out by its continual falling, on leaving which it runs through a channel obstructed throughout several miles of its course with huge masses of rock fallen from above. From each side of the stream rise the undercliffs of the escarpment, covered with jungle and tangled debris, and crowned by vertical precipices. "

Though the Grand Chord Line runs a few miles from their northern scarp, and the Dehri-Rohtas Railway runs beneath their eastern face, the Kaimur Hills are as wild and as remote from the world as ever. All the approaches to the

plateau are more or less difficult; the best are the ghats leading from Akbarpur to Rohtas, and from Bhagwanpur, south of Bhabhua, to Karar. These two ghats begin and end the only road across the plateau, leading from Bhabhua through Bhagwanpur to Karar, Adhaura, Rehal and Rohtas. At the four villages last mentioned there are inspection bungalows, the existence of which makes this track more frequented than any other track in the hills; but it is always possible to travel from one village to another: and there is little except the mile-stones at the side of the track, to distinguish this 'road' from other footpaths. There are other tolerable ascents at Sarki near the south-western boundary, at Kariyari Khoh in the deep gorge north of Rohtas, at Ghora Ghat two miles south of Sasaram, and on the extreme west of the district, where a ghat leads up to the Chhanpathar. Game, both large and small, is abundant, particularly on the western side of the plateau; but travelling is difficult, as no wheeled traffic is possible, and all baggage has to be carried by bearers, who are recruited with some difficulty, and no supplies of any kind are locally available. These difficulties render this paradise for sportsmen quite unfrequented, though it is so near to civilisation, except on the one route where the inspection bungalows lie. The great want on the plateau is good water, which only exists at a few places. In the rains there is abundance; but during the cold and hot weather the inhabitants are sometimes put to great difficulties to obtain a proper supply.

RIVER SYSTEM.

The district of Shahabad occupies the angle formed by the junction of the Son with the Ganges, but neither of these rivers anywhere crosses the boundary. It is also watered by several minor streams, which all rise among the Kaimur hills and flow north towards the Ganges. The most noteworthy of the rivers flowing past or in the district are described below.

The Ganges.

The Ganges forms the northern boundary of the district, separating it from Ghazipur, Ballia and Saran. It first touches Shahabad near Chausa, where it is joined by the Karamnasa, and then flows in a north-easterly direction past Buxar, until it is north of the site occupied fifty years ago by Ballia town, whence it curves to the south-east to Sapahi. There it again turns north-east for another great curve cutting into Ballia district, past Nainijor, turning again south-east to Lachmanpur. Hence it runs east by north-east until it leaves the district,

Opposite Sinha begins the delta, marked by broad channels on each side, by which its great tributary the Gogra joins it from the north. Another great tributary, the Son, joins it as it leaves the district. Small tributaries which join it during its course by Shahabad district are the Thora, Juri, and Gangi, of which the latter is of some importance as forming the outlet by which the Arrah canal joins the river. The description of this part of Bihār by the Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsiang, who visited India in the seventh century A.D., shows that the river formerly flowed much farther to the south than at present. The town of Masar, which in Hiuen Tsiang's time was close to the Ganges, is now ten miles away from it; but the high bank of the old bed can still be traced past Buxar, Bhojpur, Belauti, Bihia, Arrah, and Koelwar.

In the Buxar subdivision the banks, which are of hard gravel, are generally steep and abrupt, as the current strikes against them; but lower down, where the stream is deflected against the opposite bank, the slope is gradual. In many places they are composed of a schistose clay, which has an appearance similar to that of sandstone, but crumbles away very readily. The breadth of the stream in the dry season is generally from half to three-quarters of a mile; but in the rainy season it is many times wider. The river is then a mighty stream; and wherever it impinges upon the bank on either side, that bank is likely to be cut away. While the main stream impinges upon one side, the stream on the other is comparatively sluggish, and detritum with which the water is heavily loaded is there deposited. The heaviest portion of the detritum is deposited first, so that the formation of these great *diaras* ordinarily begins with the deposit of a bank of sand. The process is repeated in following seasons, with increasing friction from the sandbank already there; and silt is then deposited, forming cultivable land of great value. A rush is made to settle on this as the water subsides, on the principle that possession is nine-tenths of the law: and riots then are apt to occur, amounting to pitched battles between rival villages. The proprietors who claim that the newly formed land has become part of their estates by accretion, or that it is a reformation *in situ* of land formerly theirs which has been washed away, have opportunities for endless litigation, in which they have freely indulged. A large proportion of the leading cases on the subject of alluvial

accretion have been concerned with these *diaras*; the great village of Sheopurdiar has more than its share of them, while others are concerned with the diaras of Nainijor, Umarpur and Parsanpa. There has been a steady thrust northwards during the last fifty years in the area immediately north of Dumraon, and the site at 25° 44′ N., where the town of Ballia formerly stood, is now south of the river in Shahabad. The main stream of the Ganges forms the boundary between Bihar and the United Provinces; and annually, after the fall of the river at the close of the rainy season, Deputy Collectors from each district go down the river by boat, marking the main stream on their *dhurdhura* map, to define the civil and criminal jurisdictions. The revenue jurisdiction remains unchanged until villages are transferred from one province to another by formal notifications, a fact which is apt to produce legal complications, since revenue courts in the United Provinces exercise jurisdiction which in Bihar is vested in civil courts.

There is a large traffic on the river; and Chausa is of some importance still in this connection; but the steamers of the Indian Navigation and Rivers Steam Navigation Companies no longer maintain their services beyond Buxar on the Ganges and Barhaj on the Gogra.

The Son. The Son rises, near the sources of the Narbada and Mahanadi, on the elevated plateau of Central India. After a course of 325 miles through a high rocky tract, it enters this district at Kosdera near Jadunathpur, and flowing by the steep slopes and precipices of the Kaimur range, debouches upon the Gangetic valley at Akbarpur. It then runs a straight course of one hundred miles through the plains of South Bihar, and finally joins the sacred river ten miles north of Maner midway between Arrah and Dinapore. During this portion of its course it attains a great width, which generally exceeds two miles, and opposite Tilothu amounts to three miles; and another peculiarity of these lower reaches is the height of the eastern bank, where the strong westerly winds which prevail from January till the breaking of the rains in June heap up the sand from the river bed to a height of twelve or fourteen feet above the level of the country, thus forming a natural embankment for many miles.

The Son bounds the district for 145 miles on the south and east. It first touches on Shahabad near Kosdera, a place about

440 feet above the sea, and after gradually curving round the Kaimur hills on the west, flows by Akbarpur forty feet lower. Proceeding to the north, it passes Dehri, Hariharganj, Nanaur and Koelwar, where the East Indian Railway crosses it on a fine lattice girder bridge; and finally it falls into the Ganges opposite Dariaganj in Saran. Opposite Hankarpur it is joined by the river Koel from Palamau, and at Dehri it is crossed by the massive masonry dam which supplies a head for the Son Canals, and by the great bridge over which runs the Grand Chord Line of the East Indian Railway. The most noticeable features of this portion of its course are its meagre stream of water at ordinary times as compared with the enormous breadth of the river bed, its vast size and its paroxysmal violence at periods of flood. Seen in the dry season, about April or May, the bed presents a wide stretch of drifting sand with an insignificant stream of water, barely a hundred yards wide, meandering from bank to bank, and fordable in most places. But in the rainy season, especially just after a storm has burst on the plateau of Central India, the river presents an extraordinary contrast. It drains a hill area of 21,300 square miles, a tract about four times as extensive as the district of Shahabad; the entire rainfall of this enormous catchment basin has to find an outlet by this channel; and after heavy rain the river rises with incredible rapidity. The channel frequently proves unable to carry off the total flood discharge, amounting to 830,000 cubic feet per second, and the flood waters rush down so violently as to spill over its broad bed and cause disastrous inundations in the low-lying plains of Shahabad. These heavy floods are, however, of short duration, hardly ever lasting more than four days, after which the river rapidly sinks to its usual level.

The Son receives no tributaries of any importance from the point where it enters the district up to Dehri, where its waters are distributed east to the Gaya and Patna districts and west to Shahabad through the great irrigation system of the Son Canals; and between Dehri and its junction with the Ganges the drainage sets away from it, so that no stream can join it north of that place. Old beds are numerous, but they are principally found on the eastern bank in the districts of Gaya and Patna. One such bed, however, runs in this district from Telkap; it is very obscurely marked, but apparently rejoins the present channel at the depression near Amiawar, a short

distance south of Nasriganj. In the later years of the nineteenth century the Son shifted its course a little, and several villages, three miles north of Koelwar, were swept away, while accretions formed on the opposite bank.

The bed of the Son consists almost entirely of sand; but in a few parts clay is found and cultivated. Nodular limestone is obtained in several places; and the trial wells sunk during the construction of the Koelwar bridge disclosed a thick stratum of that substance below the sand. Below the junction of the Koel a species of small pebbles or agates is found, many of which are ornamental, and take a good polish; most of them consist of silica, both opaque and diaphanous, of a reddish or dark green tinge. In the Ain-i-Akbari the Son is said to have the power of petrifying substances thrown into it and to contain many *saligram* stones.

During the dry season there are many fords, but ferry boats generally ply for eight months in the year. The fall of the river bed below Akbarpur varies only from 1·75 to 2·80 feet a mile, but at several places above Dehri rocks and rapids effectually stop river traffic. In its lower reaches also navigation is intermittent and of little commercial importance. In the rainy season country boats of large tonnage occasionally proceed for a short distance up-stream under favourable circumstances of wind and flood; but navigation is rendered dangerous by the extraordinary violence of the floods, and during the rest of the year is impossible for any but small boats owing to the small depth of water. The principal traffic is in bamboos and timber. The former are floated down, bound into rafts consisting of ten thousand or more lashed together—a tedious process in the dry weather, as they are constantly grounding, and the many windings of the stream render their progress extremely slow.

The Son possesses historical interest as being identical with the Erannoboas, which is mentioned by Megasthenes as the third river in all India and inferior to none but the Indus and Ganges. Erannoboas is evidently a Hellenised form of the Sanskrit *Hiranyabahu* or golden-armed, a name formerly given to the river and apparently derived from the ruddy-coloured sand it brings down in flood. It formerly flowed far to the east and joined the Ganges near Fatuha in Patna district; and the ancient town of Pataliputra (corresponding to the modern

Patna) was situated at its confluence with the Ganges. It has gradually receded further westwards and made fresh channels for itself. Old river beds have been found between Bankipore and Dinapore, and Mr. Twining, who was Collector of Shahabad in 1801—1804, mentions that in his time the river broke through the eastern bank in high flood, and flowing along what was recognized as its old channel, inundated the cantonment of Dinapore. In the Ain-i-Akbari it is said to have joined the Ganges at Maner, and in Rennell's Bengal Atlas of 1772 the junction is marked at the same place. In Buchanan's time, however, (1812), the Son flowed into the Ganges three miles about Maner, and it now joins that river about ten miles higher up.

The Karamnasa.

The Karamnasa rises near Surdag on the south of the Kaimur plateau, whence it flows in a north-westerly direction into the Benares State. It returns to Shahabad district on the plateau near Karkatgarh, at its junction with the Garhwat, whence for about six miles it forms the boundary between this district and the State. It descends from the plateau at the Chhanpathar by a fall of three hundred feet of which the lower portion, one hundred feet high, is perpendicular. This is the finest waterfall in Shahabad district; but its magnificence has been lessened of late years by the diversion for irrigation purposes of much of the water of the river while it is in the Benares State. It flows out to the plains through a precipitous gorge, spreading out to a width of a hundred and fifty yards in the level country, cutting a deep bed through a deep clay very retentive of moisture. From Beori it again forms the district boundary until it falls into the Ganges near Chausa, having been joined on its course by the Durgauti. After February there is little water in the river; but during the rains boats of fifty maunds' burthen sail up to the confluence with the Durgauti.

This river is held by Hindus in the utmost abhorrence and is regarded by them as an accursed stream. In the *Tuzak-i-Babari* (1590 A.D.) we are informed that when Babar came to the river in his expedition against Bihar, the pious Hindus refused to pass it, and, in order to avoid its unholy waters, embarked in a boat and crossed by the Ganges. Its impurity is connected with the following legend :—Raja Trisangku, of the Solar line, married the stepmother of a Brahman whom he

had murdered and was purified from his sin only by bathing in water collected by a saint from all the streams in the world; this water, still polluted by his crime, now flows from the spring in which the Karamnasa rises. Another local legend accounts for the abhorrence of this river in a somewhat different manner. It relates how Raja Trisangku, being anxious to ascend to heaven in his human form, went to Vasistha, his *guru* or spiritual guide, and asked him to perform some religious rite by which his wish might be fulfilled. Vasistha replied that he was forbidden by the Sastras to offer such an indignity to the gods. Raja Trisangku went with the same request to Vasistha's sons, but they likewise rejected it, and, learning that he had not taken their father's refusal as final, cursed him and reduced him to the impure condition of a Chandal. In this degraded state, however, he succeeded in gaining the pity and favour of another holy man, Vishwamitra Rishi, who listened to his petition and despatched him to heaven. The gods, incensed at his insolence and impurity, cast him head foremost down again, but as he fell he cried out for help and was stopped by Vishwamitra in mid-air. Thereupon some saliva dropped from his mouth on the earth and formed the source of the Karamnasa. Several other similar legends are current, but the most probable explanation of the uncleanness of this stream in Hindu eyes is that it long formed the boundary between the orthodox region of Brahmanism, whose centre was at Benares, and the heretic country of Magadha, the home of Buddhism for many centuries. There is nothing in the composition of the water itself to account for its unholiness, but no high-caste Hindu, except those who live on its banks, will even now-a-days drink or touch it. By the latter it is used freely and without a scruple for all purposes; and they have invented a simple explanation of their disregard of the ancient prejudice of their co-religionists. The word Karamnasa is derived from the Sanskrit *Karma* (an action) and the root *nas* (to destroy), the whole word signifying the annihilation of all good deeds; but the *pandits* of its riparian villages declare that its true name was Kukarmanasa (*Ku* meaning evil) and that its stream is purifying and destructive of bad deeds. At the present time, even the strictest Hindus do not consider any ceremony of purification necessary after touching the Karamnasa, because the idea is that it does not in itself defile but only washes away all previous righteousness.

The Kao.

The Kao or Dhoba rises on the plateau six miles south-west of Tilothu, and, after flowing through a glen in a northerly direction, forms a fine waterfall, and enters the plains at the Tarachandi pass, two miles south-east of Sasaram. At this place it bifurcates; one branch, the Kudra, turns to the west and ultimately joins the Karamnasa, while the other, which preserves the name Kao, flows to the north, and finally falls into the Ganges, near Gaighat. There is very little water in its bed during the cold and hot seasons, but in the rains it is subject to floods of the most violent character. At Bichia it is crossed by the Main Western Canal, underneath which it is conveyed by means of a syphon of twenty-five arches, which has a waterway of nine hundred square feet and is a cause of much anxiety during freshets. In the hilly portion of its course the bed is rocky and full of enormous boulders washed down during heavy rains. The banks are generally high and firm, but in the plains are less elevated. The river, which is nowhere navigable, except at flood-time as far as the railway line, is the principal drainage channel of the southern and central parts of the district.

The Kudra.

The Kudra, as already explained, is a branch of the Kao, and carries off the overflow of that river when it rises in flood. After leaving the Tarachandi pass near Sasaram, it is swollen by a number of small streams, and, flowing in a north-easterly direction, crosses the Grand Trunk Road at Khurmabad, and falls into the Durgauti at Tendwa after a course of fifty miles. In the dry season it contains very little water; but during the rains a large stream passes down it. The bed is rocky and full of enormous boulders until the river has fairly debouched into the plains, after which it varies according to the character of the soil through which it passes. According to local tradition, the origin of the Kudra is as follows:—A powerful Brahman zamindar, who owned large estates near Kargahar, came down with a large following to the Tarachandi pass, and, after defeating the local levies, proceeded to excavate a new channel from the Kao river to his own domains. This channel was called the Kudra because it was excavated with *kudaris*, and it is noticeable that an old bed of the Kudra is still to be seen passing northwards towards Kargahar. Legends of this great battle still linger among the people, who say that such a vast number of Brahmans were slain that over a maund of sacred thread was collected from their dead bodies.

The Durgauti.

The Durgauti rises in the village of Bhakma, on the southern ridge of the Kaimur plateau, a few miles north of the Karamnasa. For about nine miles it pursues a northerly course, being joined by some unimportant hill streams, after which it rushes over a precipice three hundred feet high into the deep glen of Kadhar Khoh, where other hill torrents help to swell its volume. After passing by the stalactite caves of Gupteswar and the hill fortress of Shergarh, it enters the plains at Karamchat and makes for Jahanabad, eight miles north, on the Grand Trunk Road. Here it runs to the north-west, running parallel to the road for twenty-two miles, until it crosses it near Sawath, where it bends towards the north-east and falls into the Karamnasa, after receiving the Kudra from the east. The Durgauti drains an area on the plateau of about two hundred square miles. In the upper part of its course it has a rocky channel, with a clear and rapid stream not more than thirty feet wide; but, after it enters the plains, it is wider, and at Jahanabad it attains a breadth varying from thirty to forty yards. The river-bed in the plains is sandy, mixed here and there with nodular limestone, which is largely quarried and used in repairing the Grand Trunk Road. It contains water all the year round; and during the rains boats of forty maunds' burthen can navigate it fifty or sixty miles from its mouth.

The Shuara.

The principal tributaries of the Durgauti are the Shuara, Kora, Gonhua and Kudra.

The Shuara rises near the village of Dahar, on the plateau, and falls into the Lal Kakand or Red Pool, at Makri Khoh. As it proceeds it receives a number of affluents, the principal of which are the streams of the Kandan Khoh and Jawar Khoh. It debouches on the plains six miles south of the town of Bhabhua, which it leaves about a mile on the east, finally falling into the Durgauti after a course of about twenty-five miles. Its bed is pebbly in the hills and sandy in the plains, and nodular limestone is largely quarried from it. In the rains, boats of a hundred maunds' burthen can ply up to the foot of the hills.

Geology.

Throughout the greater part of the district the rocks are hidden by the alluvium of the Ganges, and, except for some small hillocks about ten miles north of Sasaram, there are no rocks exposed north of 25° north latitude. The portion of the district situated south of that parallel, including the southern

portion of the Sasaram and Bhabhua sub-divisions, is mostly a plateau bounded by steep scarps. This plateau is the easternmost termination of one of the most pronounced geographical and geological features of India, the vast area constituting the Vindhyan tableland. Of the numerous stratigraphical subdivisions constituting the great Vindhyan system, only three are conspicuous in this district. They are, by order of superposition, the Kaimur sandstone, the Bijaigarh shales, and the Rohtas limestone.

The uppermost of these sub-divisions, the Kaimur sandstone, occupies the greatest superficies. It covers the greater portion of the table-land, and along its southern and southwestern borders forms the upper portion of the precipitous escarpments that overlook the Son, while along its northern edge it constitutes the whole height of the cliffs down to their base where they meet the Ganges alluvium. The Kaimur sandstone constitutes an excellent building material, and has been largely quarried at Karaundia and Dhaudhanr near Sasaram, whence it has been conveyed to Dehri to be utilised in the works connected with the Son Canals. There are also quarries of a very evenly-bedded rock at Pateswar, a detached hill close to the northern escarpment of the table-land, eight miles west of Chainpur.

Bijaigarh shales and Rohtas limestone form the undercliff facing the Son along the southern and south-eastern edge of the Kaimur outcrop, and are also seen, further north, in the deep river gorges like those of the Durgauti, where they cut through the anticlinal axes of the shallow corrugations which, striking a little north of east, help to diversify the surface of this eastern termination of the great Kaimur plateau. The Rohtas limestone, whose aggregate thickness is about five feet, is a very fine-grained, evenly-bedded rock, largely burnt for lime; and some of the beds can be used as lithographic stone. It is in this limestone that the sacred Gupteswar caves of the Durgauti valley are found. The Bijaigarh shales, about 150 feet thick, are intensely brittle and splintery, and are frequently so black in colour as to be easily mistaken for coal. They are often impregnated with iron pyrites and have been used to a small extent to manufacture sulphate of iron. In the Durgauti valley and other northern inliers, as also south-east of Khadar, the Bijaigarh shales rest directly upon the Rohtas limestone,

but along the southern scarp there intervene subsidiary sandstone and shale known as the Lower Kaimur sandstone and Rohtas shale. Sometimes an additional thin band of limestone is intercalated between the Rohtas shale and Lower Kaimur sandstone.

South-west of Rohtasgarh, in the low ground intervening between the foot of the scarp and the bank of the Son, some of the Vindhyan sub-divisions underlying the Rohtas limestone are seen for a short distance. The most interesting are some ancient volcanic beds remarkable for their porcellanic texture. The isolated low hills north of Sasaram consist of a very coarse quartzose and felspathic sandstone, containing abundant rounded pebbles of a red felspathic rock and quartz. Being surrounded on all sides by alluvium, their relations to the other rocks cannot be clearly made out; they may be the basement beds of the Vindhyan formation, or else connected with the Kaimur sandstone.*

BOTANY.

The alluvial and highly-cultivated country which forms the greater portion of the district presents in its botanical features a great contrast to the wild hilly tracts to the South. In the former sugar-cane, wheat, rice and a great variety of other food-crops are extensively grown; the area under cultivation is bare or dotted over with clumps of bamboos and mango orchards; while the villages are frequently surrounded by groves of palmyra (*borassus flabelliformis*) and date-palm (*phœnix sylvestris*). Numerous more isolated examples of *tamarindus*, *odina*, *sapindus* and *moringa* also occur, associated with which one frequently finds in village shrubberies *glycosmis*, *clerodendron*, *solanum*, *jatropha*. *trema*, *streblus* and similar semi-spontaneous and more or less useful species. In the rice-fields which cover the low-lying lands near the Ganges, the usual weeds of such localities are found, such as *ammannia*, *utricularia*, *hygrophila* and *sesbania*. Further from the river a dry scrub jungle is sometimes met with, of which the principal species are euphorbiaceous shrubs, *butea* and other leguminous trees, and various examples of *ficus*,

* The account of the geology of the district was contributed by Mr. E. Vredenburg, Superintendent, Geological Survey of India. Further details will be found in "The Vindhyan Series" by F. R. Mallet (Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India, Vol. VII, Part I), and "the Volcanic Rocks of the Lower Vindhyan Series," by E. Vredenburg (Memoirs, Vol. XXXI, Part I).

schleichera, wendlandia and *gmelina*. The grasses clothing the drier parts are generally of a coarse character, such as *andropogon contortus, aciculatus, annulatus, foveolatus* and *pertusus, aristida adscenscionis, tragus racemosus iseilema laxum*, various *anthistrieæ*, and *sabai* grass (*ischoemum angustifolium*). Throughout the alluvial country which stretches to the foot of the hills the *pipal* (*ficus religiosa*) and banyan (*ficus indica*) are common ; the other principal trees growing in this area are the *bel* (*aegle marmelos*), *nim* (*melia azadirachta*), *siris* (*mimosa sirissa*), and jack fruit tree (*artocarpus integrifolia*).

In the Kaimur hills, which with their outlying spurs occupy the southern portion of the district, a different class of vegetation exists. Though now to a great extent denuded of their best timber, they are still largely covered with forest growth, while their slopes are densely clothed with jungle. On the plateau there is long grass, chiefly spear-grass, *kus* (*poa cynosuroides*), the *khaskhas* (*andropogon muricatus*), trees of *diospyros* and *terminalia*, and here and there the *Boswellia*; in places the curious white-barked *sterculia foetida* spreads over the precipitous cliffs which form its outer face; and vast stretches of bamboo cover the debris at its base. The forests consist for the most part of a mixed growth of stunted trees of no great height or girth, and though there are patches of *sal* (*shorea robusta*), the timber is poor and scarcely worth exporting. Among other important trees found in this area may be mentioned the *amaltas* (*cassia fistula*), the red cotton tree (*bombax malabaricum*), the *hara* (*terminalia chebula*), the astringent fruit of which forms the Indian or black myrobalan, and the *tend* (*diospyros melanoxylon*) yielding the ebony of local commerce. The plateau is also rich in various jungle products from many of which the aboriginal inhabitants obtain a livelihood; from the *khair* (*acacia catechu*) cutch is prepared; lac is obtained from the *palas* (*butea frondosa*); *tasar* silkworms feed on the *asan* tree (*terminalia tomentosa*); the long coarse *sabai* grass is made into a strong twine; and the *kus* grass produces a fragrant oil. Perhaps, however, the most useful of all the trees which clothe the hills and the undulating slopes at their base is the *mahua* (*bassia latifolia*), which yields food, wine, oil and timber, and affords the denizens of the jungle a ready means of subsistence in times of dearth From the flowers the common country

spirit is distilled, and whether fresh or dried they furnish the poorer classes with wholesome food; from the fruit is pressed an oil largely used for the adulteration of *ghi;* and the tough timber is used for the naves of cart wheels.

FAUNA. The district formerly abounded in wild animals and game-birds, but with the extension of irrigation caused by the introduction of canals they have had to give way before the advance of the cultivator, and are now only met with in the more remote parts and in diminishing numbers. With the exception of hyaenas, black buck, wild pig and nilgai (*boselaphus tragocamelus*), large game is practically confined to the Kaimur hills and the gorges which pierce the plateau in all directions. In this area tigers, though not common, are occasionally met with; bears, leopards and viverrine cats are numerous; while the *koa* or wild dog, though comparatively rare, is still sometimes seen in the wilder recesses of the plateau. There are several varieties of deer; the *sambar* (*cervus unicolor*) chiefly frequents the gorges of the table-land; spotted deer and black buck are met with in the plains, the former principally in the plains adjacent to the hills and the latter in large herds on the open country in the central zone of the district; and the hog deer (*cervus axis*) is found in the jungle growth on the hills and in the glens which fringe the plateau. The habitat of the *nilgai* is the table-land and the alluvial tract bordering on the Ganges. Wild pig abound on the table-land, in the diaras of the Ganges and the Son, and generally throughout the district. They are particularly common in the central plain; and of late years they have been hunted with considerable success in the country between Bikramganj and Dinara. Other animals include the hyaena, found principally on the plateau and its slopes, and the jackal, fox and hare, which are common throughout the district. The fish-eating crocodile is found in the larger rivers, and the common crocodile is frequently seen and sometimes attacks human beings. Of game-birds, the barred-headed goose (*anser indicus*) is very common, and the black-backed goose (*sarkidornis melanotus*) and the grey goose (*anser cinereus*) are also to be found. The other game-birds of the district include many varieties of wild duck, several kinds of teal, partridges, quail, curlews, pea-fowl and jungle-fowl.

CLIMATE. The climate of Shahabad is generally dry and bracing. It enjoys a long cold weather, which commences early in Novem-

ber and ends with the close of March, when the hot weather sets in with strong west winds which blow until the end of May. Soon after this, the rainy season commences and lasts till the end of September; but as the beginning of this season occurs when a storm from the Bay of Bengal passes over Bihar, the commencement of the monsoon may be as early as the last week of May and as late as the first or second week of July.

Temperature and humidity. Owing to its distance from the sea, Shahabad has greater extremes of climate than more eastern districts. Mean temperature varies from 62° in January to 90° in May, the average maximum temperature rising to 102° in the latter month. In consequence of the hot and dry westerly winds which prevail in March and April, humidity is much lower at this season than at any other times of the year and averages only fifty per cent. of saturation. With the approach of the monsoon season, the air slowly becomes more charged with moisture, and humidity remains steady at 88 per cent. throughout July and August. In September, when periods of fine weather alternate with the cloud and rain of the monsoon, humidity is lower; and, with breaks of increasing length, it gradually falls until November, after which until January there is a slight increase owing to the unsettled weather caused by the cold season disturbances.

Winds. From October until May the prevailing direction of the wind is from the west; but a marked change takes place with the commencement of the monsoon, which is generally caused by the first cyclonic storm which enters from the Bay of Bengal. The flow of the moist winds from the Bay is northwards over the eastern districts of Bengal proper, but afterwards they trend to the west owing to the barrier interposed by the Himalayan range : so that after the passage of the cyclonic storms, easterly winds set in and continue with but little interruption until the middle of September, when westerly winds again become common.

Rainfall. During the months from November to May, fine dry weather with an almost entire absence of cloud and rainfall prevails; and only a fraction of an inch of rain falls monthly. In normal years the monsoon breaks in June; and the heaviest rainfall occurs in July and August, varying from 11·48 to 13·80 inches in the former and from 9·22 to 13·20 inches in the latter month. From the middle of September the monsoon

current begins to fall off in strength; and if the westerly winds are stronger than usual, the storms coming inland from the Bay of Bengal recede eastwards and rainfall is consequently deficient.

Statistics of rainfall at the principal stations are given below. The figures shewn are the averages recorded from the earliest year in which rainfall was systematically registered up to the end of 1921. They have been recorded at Arrah for sixty years, and at Buxar, Bhabhua, and Sasaram for 48 years.

	Arrah.	Buxar.	Bhabhua.	Sasaram.
January	0·70	0·70	0·64	0·58
February	0·71	0·65	0·86	0·80
March	0·45	0·37	0·46	0·44
April	0·29	0·18	0·17	0·21
May	1·46	0·71	0·80	0·97
June	6·39	5·14	5·21	5·73
July	11·74	11·04	11·31	11·48
August	11·83	11·50	12·16	13·45
September	7·22	6·97	7·47	7·43
October	2·54	2·85	2·58	2·57
November	0·27	0·37	0·50	0·42
December	0·14	0·18	0·25	0·21
ANNUAL ...	43·74	40·66	42·41	44·29

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

PREHISTORIC PEOPLES.

In prehistoric times Shahabad was occupied by aboriginal* races, of whom the chief representatives were the Bhars, Cheros and Savars. According to a legend, current in the neighbouring district of Mirzapur both among the Bhars and the Aryan community, a great Bhar Raja ruled over the country near the Son from Rohtasgarh to Rewah. This monarch, who is said to have built the fort of Rohtasgarh, was killed by three Rajput brothers, who conspired against him and divided his kingdom among themselves. The Cheros, whom the testimony of tradition shows to have been another dominant race, were eventually conquered by the Savars or Suirs, who then held the country till in their turn they were subdued by Aryan immigrants. Traditions of the rule of these three races still linger among the people, who attribute to them the remains of various temples and fortifications. Though there is not a single known descendant of the Savars left in Shahabad, members of the other two tribes are still found in various parts of the district; the Bhars for the most part live in the Buxar subdivision, while a few Cheros are to be seen in the recesses of the hills and in the Bihia† *pargana* where they inhabit the reclaimed Jagdispur jungle. Similar traditions of ancient greatness linger among other aboriginal tribes; the Kharwars claim to have been originally settled in the hills near Rohtas, and a few survivors still obtain a precarious livelihood in the plateau; while the Oraons allege that they held the country between Rohtas and Patna and thence

* For an account of the Dravidian and Kolarian place names in Shahabad, *see* an article by the Rev. F. Hahn, J.A.S.B., Vol. LXXII, Part III, No. 2, 1903.

† Mr. A. C. Fox states that, according to local tradition, the Cheros were once *rajas* who had palaces at Basaun, Dalipur and Bihia. They now work as coolies and wood-cutters and are one of the hardest-drinking castes in Bihar.

wandered south to the jungles. They explain that Rohtas was long held by their ancestors, but was finally wrested from them by the Hindus, who surprised them at night during one of their great national festivals, when the men had fallen senseless from intoxication and only women were left to fight.

EARLY HISTORY.

Coming to later times, Shahabad was comprised, with the country now included in the districts of Patna and Gaya, in the ancient kingdom of Magadha, and formed part of the empire of Asoka; but apparently it was subject to Buddhist influences only to a very small extent. An Asoka inscription is still extant on Chandan Pir's hill at Sasaram, and this hill is clearly an old Buddhist site; but from the general absence of Buddhist remains throughout the district it would appear that when Buddhism flourished in Magadha, it obtained no real hold over Shahabad. When Hiuen Tsiang* made his pilgrimage to India in the seventh century A.D., the first place in Shahabad visited by him was Mo-ho-so-lo, which has been identified with the modern village of Masar, six miles west of Arrah; and he left it on record that the inhabitants were all Brahmans who did not respect the law of Buddha. The only other place which he deemed worthy of a visit was the site (identified by General Cunningham with the modern town of Arrah), where Asoka erected a stupa and lion pillar to commemorate the conversion by Buddha of the demons of the desert who fed on the flesh and blood of men. Though he admits that there were still some priests who reverenced the doctrine of the Great Vehicle, the whole account of the Chinese pilgrim gives a melancholy impression of the decay of the Buddhist faith; the greater part of this stupa was even then buried in the earth; the disciples of the unbelievers had endeavoured to remove the stone on which Buddha preached to the demons; and not far off there were many *sangharamas* which were mostly in ruins. Of the subsequent history of the district until the Muhammadan invasion we have but little knowledge. From the evidence of inscriptions we learn that it was included within the empire of the Gupta dynasty; an inscription found at the Mundeswari temple refers to Udyasena as the ruling chief (635 A.D.); another inscription at Deo Barunarak records the dedication of the temple by Jivita Gupta of the later Gupta dynasty; and it may safely

* Beal, Vol. II, pp. 63-65.

be inferred that Shahabad continued to form part of their monarchy and to be subject to civilizing influences.

On the downfall of the Gupta dynasty, the Aryan lords of the country, weakened by internecine strife, were unable to hold it and gave way to the aborigines. Shahabad, which still had only a very small Aryan population, relapsed into barbarism and anarchy, and again came under the sway of a number of petty aboriginal chiefs. The ruling indigenous tribe at this period was the Chero, and apparently the chieftains of this race ruled over the country until they were driven southwards by the inroads of immigrant Rajputs. The latter came upon Ujjain in Malwa under the leadership of Raja Bhoj, and after a long conflict subdued the aboriginal inhabitants of the district. The struggle lasted for hundreds of years, but eventually it terminated in favour of the Rajputs, and the Cheros were expelled and sought refuge in the hills. In these wild tracts, however, they long held their own and maintained a certain measure of independence under their native chieftains. The legends of the Cheros relate that they invaded Palamau from Rohtas and conquered the country with the aid of Rajput chiefs, the ancestors of the Thakurs of Ranka and Chainpur; while in the *Tarikh-i-Sher Shahi* * we find a mention of a chief, Maharta Chero, against whom Sher Shah sent one of his generals, Khawas Khan, with orders to cut down his jungle fastness and utterly destroy him. The power of this chief appears to have been considerable; it is said in the *Makhzan-i-Afghani* that he used to descend from his hills and jungles and harass the tenants round Bihar, and that he entirely closed the road to Gaur and Bengal; great importance was attached to his final defeat by Khawas Khan; and his destruction is mentioned in the *Wakiat-i-Mushtaki* as one of the three great works accomplished by Sher Shah.

MUHAMMADAN PERIOD.

On the conquest of Bihar by Muhammad Bakhtiyar Khilji in 1193 A.D., Shahabad was in the hands of petty Rajput chieftains, none of whom were sufficiently powerful to offer any resistance to his arms; with the other border districts it passed under the rule of the Muhammadans, and its history became merged in that of the *subah* or sub-province of which it formed a part. In 1397 it was attached to the kingdom of Jaunpur with the rest of Bihar, but a century later it was again taken possession of by the Emperors of Delhi; and the

* Elliot's History of India, Vol. IV.

next mention of the district in the Muhammadan chronicles occurs in connection with the rise of Sher Shah to power. As a reward for his services in the conquest of Jaunpur, Jamal Khan, the Subahdar of that Province, granted to the Afghan, Hasan Khan, father of Sher Shah, the *pargana* of Sasaram as a *jagir*; but even at this late date the Muhammadans do not appear to have held the district with a firm hand and, so far as can be gathered, it was subjugated rather in name than in fact. The allegiance of the people was very loose, the zamindars were practically independent and refused to pay revenue, and it required strong coercive measures on the part of Sher Shah to bring them to order.

Babar's invasion

When Babar invaded Bihar in 1529 in order to reduce its Afghan rulers, Sher Shah ranged himself against the Imperial forces; but Babar quickly defeated the allied chiefs, and local tradition points to a spot in Arrah town as the place where the Emperor pitched his camp after his victory and celebrated his assumption of sovereignty over Western Bihar. Babar's naive account of his campaign is full of incidents of personal, if not of historical, interest. A close observer, he notices the superstition of the Hindus with regard to the Karamnasa, and we learn that the Hindus of his army made a detour by the Ganges rather than touch its polluting water. While the issue of the campaign is still undecided, he finds time to ride out from his camp near Arrah to see the beds of water lilies and to taste their seeds, which, in his estimation, resemble the pistachio nut. He does not forget to tell us how in the preceding year he swam the Ganges at Buxar, and how finding the Son was near, he rode on to see the tombs of Maner and to say his prayers at noon in the mosque. Even when attacked by the Bengal army, he seems to have been more gratified at seeing how they worked the artillery for which they were famous than indignant at their treachery; and he remarks with the utmost gravity that their method was to fire at random and never to take aim.

Sher Shah.

On the death of Babar, Sher Shah became supreme on the borders of Bengal and soon effected the conquest of that Province. In 1537 Humayun advanced against him, and after a siege of six months reduced his fortress of Chunar; on this Sher Shah shut himself up in Rohtasgarh, which he had succeeded in capturing a short time previously, and made no effort to oppose his advance. Humayun spent six months of dissipation in Bengal, and then finding that Sher Shah had

cut off his communications and that his brothers at Delhi would not come to his assistance, retraced his steps. He was met by Sher Shah's army at Chausa near Buxar and was utterly defeated: the Emperor himself escaped by swimming the Ganges with the help of a *massak* or water-bag, but eight thousand of his followers perished in attempting to follow him. This victory secured to Sher Shah the throne of Delhi, and on his death he was buried at Sasaram in the magnificent mausoleum which he had built for himself.

Mughal Subahdars

After the accession of Akbar, his viceroy, Man Singh, selected Rohtasgarh as his stronghold, and steps were taken to organize the administration, the land revenue of the district, which was at that time included in *sarkar* Rohtas, being fixed at Rs. 10,22,000. In spite, however, of the possession of this fortress, the Mughal Emperors had but little hold over the greater part of the district; and under Akbar and his successors, the local chieftains were in a constant state of rebellion,* which was only suppressed by the strong forces sent against them. The Rajas of Jagdispur resisted the Mughal armies for years until the unequal combat led to their entire destruction; and another chieftain, the Raja of Bhojpur, also defied the Emperor, till he too was defeated and imprisoned. When Akbar at length set him at liberty on the payment of an enormous ransom, he again armed and continued in rebellion under Jahangir. This rising was not finally quelled till, Bhojpur having been sacked, his successor, Raja Pratab, was executed by Shah Jahan, while the Rani was forced to marry a Muhammadan courtier.

The zamindars of Bhojpur long retained an independent position and considerable power, and the author of the Sair-ul-Mutakharin refers to them as "bad men to a proverb," "famous both for their number and depredations as well as for their refractory temper." We learn that "to their unbounded influence in their own extensive possessions they joined connections of long standing with the independent zamindars and princes on the other side of the mountainous country"; and their subjugation became at last a matter of administrative necessity. Finally, the Governor of Bihar was sent by his uncle, Ali Vardi Khan, against these semi-independent chiefs; and setting out at the head of a strong army and train of artillery, he succeeded in crushing them

* *See* Notes from Muhammadan historians, by H. Blochman, J.A.S.B., Vol. XL, Part I, 1871.

(1740-41 A.D.). "Few of the merchants of the district," we are told, "few of its inhabitants had not felt their exactions, and hardly any traveller could venture to pass through their lands without being stripped and, in case of resistance, murdered. It would require a volume to enumerate the many violences and the many extortions they were perpetually putting into practice against all mankind. At last, after two engagements that cost much blood, and two sieges that consumed much time, the refractory zamindars were driven from their strongholds, their castles and habitations were destroyed, and the country was freed from their incursions and eternal violence. The young Viceroy having rid himself of these troublesome oppressors turned his views towards quieting the country, tranquillizing the minds of the husbandmen, establishing a revenue, and resuscitating the finances."

RISE OF THE BRITISH POWER.

During the troubled times which witnessed the decay of the Mughal empire and the rise of the British power, the district was frequently overrun by contending armies. Mustafa Khan, the rebellious general of Ali Vardi Khan, retreated there in 1744 at the head of his Afghan followers, with the firm assurance that he would obtain the ready support of its disaffected zamindars. A pitched battle ensued at Jagdispur against the forces of the Governor of Bihar, which ended in the defeat of the rebel general's troops and his own death. Many of his officers and followers fled to the hills near Sasaram, from which all exit was barred by the local zamindars, and thence addressed piteous appeals to the Maratha Raghuji Bhonsla to come to their rescue. The Maratha, seeing the policy of attaching to his cause some thousand tried Afghan soldiers, set out from Birbhum and, having forded the Son, went into the hills of Sasaram (1745 A.D.). After effecting a junction with the Afghans, he descended to the plains with an army which, after this addition to its strength, numbered 20,000 horse and then retired to Arwal. In 1785 Sasaram again saw the passage of a large army. The Shahzada or Imperial Prince, known afterwards as the Emperor Shah Alam, who had been appointed by his father Subahdar of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, had invaded Bihar with a mixed army of Afghans and Marathas in order to establish his claims to the Province. He had already invested Patna when the approach of Clive with a small force of 450 Europeans and 2,500 sepoys forced the Mughal army to beat a hurried retreat to Sasaram. Thence the Shahzada moved his forces to the

banks of the Durganti, where he was joined by Pahlwan Singh of Nokha, the powerful zamindar of Sasaram *pargana*; and soon afterwards he crossed the Karamnasa. Clive,* who had recently been made Governor of all the Company's settlements in Bengal, thereupon marched from Patna against Pahlwan Singh, but that chieftain refused to give battle, and, after an interview with Clive at Sasaram, came to terms and disbanded his troops.

One of the earliest measures of Mir Kasim, after his appointment as Nawab, was to establish his power over this part of his dominions, and with this object he marched in 1762 with a large force to Sasaram, which he made his head-quarters. No resistance, however, was offered to him; Pahlwan Singh and the disaffected zamindars of Bhojpur fled the country and took refuge with Shuja-ud-daula; and the Nawab took possession of their lands, placed his own collectors in each zamindari, and supported them by strong bodies of troops. Mir Kasim remained some time at Sasaram, visited Rohtasgarh, and then returned to Monghyr after taking measures to secure the tranquillity of the country. He put Shah Mal, the Diwan of Rohtasgarh, in irons, imprisoned the Kiladar or commandant of the garrison, and left bodies of troops in various parts of the district. One officer was placed in command of Sasaram and Chainpur; his paymaster was stationed at Bhojpur with a whole brigade of horse and foot; and, lastly, the infamous Somru held Buxar with a few regiments of sepoys and some field-pieces. In the Sair-ul-Mutakharin we find a brief notice of Somru's management of Buxar, which is worthy of mention as giving an insight into both the state of the country and the methods of the man who was subsequently guilty of the massacre of the English at Patna. According to this account, "Somru, who as the chief man of the country, had a right to a portion of the booties made by those famous banditti of the Bhojpur country, invited them all to an entertainment before the fort of Buxar; and as they all came whilst he was exercising a regiment of sepoys, he made them load with ball, and falling at once with fixed bayonets upon these miscreants, he put them all to death to the number of six hundred."

THE CAMPAIGN OF 1763-64. Mutinies at Durganti.

On Mir Kasim's rupture with the English in 1763, he sent the ladies of his household and his treasure to the fort

* Sair-ul-Mutakharin, Vol. II, p. 329.

at Rohtas for safety. After the repeated defeats which ended with the capture of Patna by Major Adams on the sixth of November in that year, Mir Kasim retreated to Shahabad district, intending to make a last stand at Rohtas. At Tilothu, seeing his followers beginning to desert him, he sent for his household and treasure, and retired into the country of the Nawab-Wazir of Oudh. The British army reached Khajura on the Karamnasa in pursuit of him on the 5th of December; but as he had escaped into Oudh, and they could not cross the Karamnasa without committing an act of hostility towards Shuja-ud-daula, they withdrew to Sawath on the Durgauti, close to the place where the Grand Trunk Road now crosses the river by a suspension bridge. Adams was immediately obliged to resign the chief command, on account of failing health, to Randfurlie Knox, who himself was shortly compelled to return to Patna, where he died on the 28th of January, 1764. Captain Jennings of the Artillery temporarily took command of the army in the field.

The Company's force encamped at Sawath consisted of the European Battalion, the 1st and 2nd companies of Artillery, two troops of Dragoons, the two squadrons of Moghal Horse and six battalions of sipahis. The European Battalion included a French company under Lieutenant Claude Martine, and drafts lately received from the King's 84th Regiment. In January the army was strengthened by the arrival of reinforcements from Patna and Burdwan, the latter including a troop of European Hussars, and two more French companies. There was considerable discontent over the delay made by the Nawab Mir Jafar in payment of the donation promised to the troops in the previous July: the French companies were actually disaffected: and on the 11th of February the whole of the Europeans paraded without their officers, and declared their intention to march to Patna. They marched off, however, towards the Karamnasa; and though their officers following them persuaded most of the British to return to their duty, three hundred Europeans crossed that river headed by a Sergeant Delamarr, who had been born in England of French parents. Most of the Germans among the mutineers then repented; and the force which ultimately joined the enemy consisted of five sergeants and 152 men of the European Battalion, almost all Frenchmen; sixteen of the European Cavalry; and about a hundred Indians, chiefly from the Moghal Horse.*

* Broome, p. 419.

The Nawab Mir Jafar was encamped with his army with the British on the Durgauti. Captain Jennings succeeded in obtaining from him a lakh of rupees, and having borrowed all that could be collected from the European officers, he issued a dividend of the Nawab's promised donation. On the following morning (February 13th), the sepoys mutinied, discontented at the proportion of the donation allotted to them. They made off towards the Karamnasa; but Captain Jennings overtook them, and persuaded all to return. The Nawab Mir Jafar now withdrew to Daudnagar; and on the 16th of February the Company's troops marched down the road towards Sasaram, ultimately halting at Hariharganj, where Carnac took over the command.

It was now clear that Shah Alam and Shuja-ud-daula were about to invade Bihar with Mir Kasim. Carnac marched his army to Buxar, where he halted until April 4th, when he gave out that scarcity of provisions made it necessary to withdraw to Patna. He accordingly took his army back by the northern road, crossing the Son at Maner, reaching Dinapore on the 13th. Carnac there passes out of the history of Shahabad district; but it may be mentioned that the invading army crossed the Son near Daudnagar, and that Carnac, though he had, including Mir Jafar's troops, nineteen thousand men, allowed himself to be invested by the enemy who were only forty thousand strong, "an extraordinary circumstance, which presented a novel spectacle to the native powers." * On the 3rd of May the enemy attacked and were defeated; but Carnac made no attempt to follow up his success, until at the end of May the enemy withdrew to Buxar. Major Hector Munro, who now superseded Carnac, at once set about restoring the discipline of the army by timely severity, and by bringing to an end the period of inactivity which had fostered discontent among the troops. Shuja-ud-daula was sending a force to garrison Rohtas; but Munro anticipated him by sending Captain Goddard from Tikari, who was able to seize the fortress without difficulty, just before the arrival of Shuja-ud-daula's detachment, which retreated on seeing the British colours on the walls. As soon as the cessation of the rains made it possible for the main body to march from Bankipore, Major Champion was directed to cross over from Chapra, marching down the west bank of the Son, to cover the passage of the

* Broome, p. 454.

army at Koilwar ghat. Major Champion achieved his task successfully; the detachment which had been sent to Koilwar to challenge the passage of Munro's army was forced to retreat; and the army crossed the river on the 10th and 11th of October. There was a skirmish between the advanced guards of the two armies at the Banas nala beyond Arrah on October 13th,* in which the cadet, Mr. Surdal, behaved with great gallantry; but the main body, though they were harassed daily by parties of cavalry, arrived in sight of the enemy at Buxar on the morning of October 23rd. The position taken up by Shuja-ud-daula was a formidable one, with his left wing resting on the Ganges and occupying the fort and town of Buxar, the whole force amounting to between forty and fifty thousand men. The fight was hard contested, but finally the enemy were compelled to retreat, and the retreat soon became a rout. There was a bridge of boats over the Thora nadi, which Shuja-ud-daula destroyed as soon as he was safely across it, thereby exposing to destruction the rear of his own army. "Elephants, camels, bullocks, horses and men were mixed together, trying to force their way across the stream, and their struggles only impeded each other. Several thousand human beings perished in this attempt, either drowned in the stream or suffocated in the mud, until a bridge, three hundred yards long, was actually formed by their bodies, over which the survivors escaped."† Thus ended the battle of Buxar, on which the fate of India depended, a battle as gallantly contested as it was decisive in its results.

Chait Singh's rebellion, 1781.

The peace of Shahabad district was again broken, though not to a very serious extent, in 1781, when Chait Singh, Raja of Benares, successor of the Balwant Singh who had fought for Shuja-ud-daula at Buxar, broke out into open rebellion. Chait Singh's dominions included a large tract in Shahabad, as his father Balwant Singh had seized the north-western portion of the district in order to consolidate his power and establish a strategical basis on the south of the Ganges. With this object he annexed in 1754 the large *pargana* Kera Mangraur, which then appertained to Shahabad, and occupied it with an overpowering force of his own troops and a large contingent of Maratha cavalry; and in 1758 with the help of Somru he captured the fort of Seringah, four miles

* For details of this fight, *see* Caraccioli, II, 50.

† Broome, p. 479.

south of Chausa, and expelled the Ujjain chief of the Bhojpur family from that part of the country. The power of Chait Singh thus extended up to Buxar; and for several years before his final revolt the English garrison were practically confined to the walls of the fort. As early as 1778 the zamindars in the neighbourhood of Buxar gave out publicly that the English would not long retain the country, and got possession of two 24-pounders which had been sunk in a boat on its way to Chunar, saying that the English would not need them but they themselves would. In 1779 attacks were frequently made on the sepoys and servants of the officers at Buxar, when they ventured into Chait Singh's country; the Buxar *chaudhri*, who had the temerity to cross the river, was put in irons for nineteen days and made to pay a fine; and no redress of these grievances could be obtained from the officers of the Raja. His agents were constantly employed in tampering with the fidelity of the sepoys of the garrison, and many of them deserted and took service with him. When Warren Hastings proceeded by river to Benares in 1781, Chait Singh met him at Buxar, accompanied by a fleet carrying two thousand armed men; while the country along both banks of the Ganges was occupied by masses of troops belonging to the Raja, who was prepared, if necessary, to overcome the slender retinue of the Governor-General. The interview, however, passed off quietly; and Chait Singh afterwards sought Warren Hastings in his pinnace, and throwing himself at his feet professed the deepest repentance for the past and perfect resignation to his commands. When Chait Singh rose in revolt shortly afterwards, there was little actual fighting in Shahabad. Moses Crawfurd from Dinapore, and Major Eaton from Buxar marched by the Chausa road. James Crawfurd marched with his regiment from Sherghati to Akbarpur, where he cut a road and dragged his guns up the Kaimur plateau; and though large forces of the rebels occupied the hills, he succeeded in getting through without molestation to Bijaigarh, where he had been directed to proceed in order to intercept Chait Singh's troops from Ramnagar.

THE MUTINY.

Shahabad has thenceforth had an uneventful history broken only by the Mutiny of 1857, when it again became the arena of more than one sanguinary conflict. The army was largely recruited from Shahabad, and here, as in Oudh, the sepoys found sympathy and support; Kuar Singh, the

powerful zamindar of Jagdispur, declared in their favour; and it required a long and tedious campaign to stamp out the rising in the district. It was overrun by Kuar Singh and the mutineers from Dinapore immediately after the outbreak at that station; and Arrah, with its jail broken open, its convicts released and its treasury plundered, was the scene of a defence which is one of the most stirring episodes of the Mutiny. The mutinous sepoy regiments who had risen at Dinapore made straight for Shahabad with a force of two thousand strong, and, being joined by Kuar Singh and his levies, they marched on Arrah. The small band of Europeans stationed there shut themselves up in their little fortress with a faithful force of fifty Sikhs, and there held out for a long eight days. A relieving party of four hundred and fifteen officers and men, headed by Captain Dunbar, proceeded in a steamer from Dinapore to their rescue; but the attempt only ended in miserable failure. They were landed at the nearest point to Arrah, and pushing on through the night, they succeeded in getting almost into the suburbs of the town by midnight without meeting any of the enemy. They appear to have been confident that their advance would not be opposed; although the moon had set at eleven o'clock and it was pitch dark, no scouts were sent forward; and marching carelessly on they fell blindly into an ambuscade. Suddenly a tremendous fire was poured in on them from a thick mango-grove by the side of the road; Dunbar himself fell with a large number of his men at the first volley; and the survivors fired helplessly into space or into one another. At last, an officer got hold of a bugler and had the assembly called in a field close by. Here the men gathered together and found some shelter in a small tank, but their white summer uniforms made them an easy target for the mutineers, who, concealing themselves behind walls and trees, were safe from the random fire of the Europeans and shot them down at their leisure. At daybreak it was decided to retire to the river from which they had started, but the retreat soon degenerated into a rout. For fifteen miles they struggled on under a hot fire, as the ditches, jungle, houses, and all the places of cover along the road were lined with the rebels. Man after man dropped down; they could see no enemy, only puffs of smoke; and when the troops tried to charge, the mutineers, safe in ambush, laughed at their impotent rage. At last, they reached the river, only to find their boats stranded; and the exhausted

soldiers had to stand huddled on the bank, exposed to the fire of their pursuers until they could be got off. Many were shot as they tried to cross the stream; others, who plunged in to escape the enemy's fire, were drowned; and only a sorry remnant reached the steamer which was waiting to carry them back to Dinapore. Had not the ammunition of the insurgents run short, hardly a man would have escaped; and, as it was, out of the 415 men who left Dinapore, 150 were killed, and of the survivors only about fifty escaped unwounded. But disastrous as was their retreat, it was redeemed by individual acts of heroism. Ross Mangles, of the Indian Civil Service, carried a wounded soldier for the last five miles of the way till he reached the stream, and then swam with his helpless burden to a boat. Mr. McDonell, of the same service, was in a boat which drifted helplessly back into the bank every time it was pushed off, as the rebels had taken away the oars and lashed the rudder. The thirty-five soldiers in the boat were sheltered from fire by the usual thatch covering, but while the rudder was fixed, they remained at the mercy of the enemy. At this crisis, McDonell, though himself wounded, stepped out of the shelter, climbed on to the roof of the boat, perched himself on the rudder, and cutting the lashings under a hail of bullets, succeeded in getting the boat under way. Both these civilians received the Victoria Cross as a reward for their bravery.

In the meantime, the little garrison at Arrah, who had listened eagerly to the sound of firing, and, hearing it die away, knew that the attempt to relieve them had failed, gallantly held out against the hordes which invested their diminutive fortress. Help, however, was soon to come from an unexpected source. Major Vincent Eyre of the Bengal Artillery, while steaming up the Ganges with his horse battery of six guns and a company of European gunners, touched at Buxar *en route* for Ghazipur, and heard that the Europeans at Arrah were besieged. He immediately landed, and taking with him 150 men of the 5th Fusiliers, a few mounted volunteers, and three guns with 34 artillery men, started for Arrah on the 30th July. Rain had been falling for some weeks, and the country was well nigh impassable; the guns had to be drawn by bullocks taken from the plough; and slow progress was made. On the 1st of August the dismal tidings came from Dinapore that the detachment sent to relieve Arrah had been repulsed with the loss of half their number;

but Eyre determined to push on, and after two days' hard marching he arrived at Bibiganj, where the enemy had destroyed a bridge over a deep stream, which forced him to make a flank movement towards the railway embankment. Near the embankment he was attacked by the mutineers, but after a sharp engagement he dispersed them with a bayonet charge. They never rallied; and Eyre marched straight into 'Arrah, where he arrived on the morning of the 3rd of 'August, and relieved the little garrison. After resting his men, he determined to pursue Kuar Singh to his jungle fastness at Jagdispur. Having been reinforced by two hundred men of the 10th Foot and a hundred of Rattray's Sikhs, Eyre marched from 'Arrah, and on the 11th of 'August arrived before Jagdispur, where the rebel chief had stored a vast amount of grain, enough, it is said, to feed an army of twenty thousand men for six months, and had also established a manufactory of arms and ammunition. After some jungle-fighting, the stronghold was captured; the grain was redistributed among the villagers from whom it had been forcibly taken; and the principal buildings were blown up. Kuar Singh himself fled towards Sasaram, with some mutineers of the 40th Regiment, and then passed on to Banda, Cawnpore and Lucknow.

In April 1858, however, defeated at Azimgarh and himself wounded and dying, Kuar Singh again crossed into Shahabad and took shelter at Jagdispur; the British detachment which marched against him from Arrah suffered a disastrous repulse with the loss of guns and ammunition; and though Kuar Singh himself died a few days afterwards, his followers maintained their footing in the district under his brother 'Amar Singh. Reinforced not only from across the Ganges but also from the discontented sepoy population of the district itself, hopeless of ultimate success and thereby rendered more desperate, aided by its position in dense jungles and the intense heat of the sun, the rebel force long held its ground under the bold and determined leadership of Amar Singh, and resisted all attempts at dislodgement. Marauding bands scoured the country; and on account of its exposed state, the establishment at 'Arrah had to be moved to Buxar on the abandonment of Gorakhpur. Sasaram was attacked and plundered by two thousand of the insurgents; Rohtas and its neighbourhood were infested by a considerable force of mutineers; and another rebel leader with a band of Bhojpur

men openly made grants to his followers and gave out that the British rule was at an end. The extensive jungles round Jagdispur afforded the rebels a safe refuge, and discharged sepoys and bad characters from the surrounding districts swelled their numbers; but their rule was one of terror, and they maintained their position and obtained supplies by a system of uncompromising severity and barbarity. The following account, which has been condensed from Holmes' History of the Indian Mutiny, gives a description of the last stand made by the insurgents and of their final subjugation.

On hearing the news of the defeat of the Arrah force at Jagdispur, General Sir Edward Lugard hastened to Shahabad from Azimgarh and at once began to make the most strenuous efforts to subdue the rebels. His great difficulty was to get at them. The jungle, through which they could easily thread their way, offered a serious obstacle to the movements of his unwieldy columns. His soldiers, therefore, working like coolies in the suffocating heat, cut roads through the tangled maze. Again and again they brought parties of the rebels to action, and invariably defeated them. But the rebels ran away as often as they were attacked, and simply did their best to annoy their opponents by doing as much damage and making as great a disturbance as they could. By the middle of June Lugard was so exhausted by the hardships, the fatigue, and the anxiety which he had undergone, that he was obliged to resign his command and go home.

All through the sweltering summer months the wretched struggle dragged on. Douglas, who succeeded Lugard, had seven thousand men under his command, and he spared neither himself nor them; but it was all that he could do to keep the insurrection within bounds; the country was so sodden by the rains that operations on a large scale were for the time impossible; and he was obliged to wait until the return of the dry season should enable him to execute his plans for hunting down his enemies. Yet he could give his weary soldiers no rest; for the Grand Trunk Road had to be guarded, and numerous petty expeditions had to be undertaken. The men of one regiment were so ill that they could hardly eat or sleep; and the most robust suffered from the alternation of scorching suns and drenching showers. Meanwhile the rebels were practically masters of Shahabad. Breaking up into small parties, they roamed over the country, maintaining themselves by plunder, and wreaking savage vengeance on all

who refused to help them. One party made a raid upon Gaya, burst open the gaol, and released the prisoners. Another swooped down upon Arrah, and fired a number of bungalows. Placards appeared, offering rewards for the heads of the English officials. At last, however, the time came for Douglas to execute his plan. Dividing his force into seven columns, he arranged that four should move from Buxar, driving the rebels before them towards Jagdispur, and with a fifth, which was in the neighbourhood of Sasaram, form a connected line from the Ganges to the Son, and thus hem in the western and southern sides of the jungle, while two others should hem it in on the east. As the Ganges bounded it on the north, the rebels would be compassed in on every side, and must surrender. On the 13th of October the columns began to move, and every hour the ring within which the rebels were confined became smaller. On the 15th all the columns were within a short distance of the jungle; and Douglas issued orders to his commanders to close simultaneously on to it. But one column was delayed for some hours by a sudden inundation; and the rebels, promptly seizing the opportunity, rushed out of the jungle, and struck eastwards with the object of crossing the Son.

Major Sir Henry Havelock then suggested that the one way to neutralize the advantage which the rebels derived from their superior speed would be to pursue them with mounted infantry armed with Enfield rifles, who would be able to overtake them and keep them engaged until a supporting force should come up and annihilate them. Douglas approved of the idea, and at eight o'clock on the night of the 18th, Havelock set out from the neighbourhood of Jagdispur with sixty mounted infantry, under orders to make for Arrah, and thence move up the left bank of the Son. A force of cavalry followed him; and at ten o'clock an infantry column was despatched, which pursued a course parallel with and north of the rebels' line of flight. Douglas himself, with another infantry column, marched for Arrah at daybreak. Within a few hours the rebels found themselves headed, and turned round and fled southwards. Their pursuers dogged them. The country was flooded, and the mounted infantry were up to their saddles in water; but the rebels were going at a great pace, and, though the horses rapidly became exhausted, the chase had to be maintained. On the afternoon of the following day, Havelock overtook the rear-guard of the fugitives, drove

them into a village, and shut them up in it until an infantry column came up to his aid. Three hundred of the rebels were soon destroyed. Two hundred more darted out of the village, and made a desperate effort to rejoin their comrades, but were hunted down, and shot or sabred. The main body fled on, doubling again and again like hares. Still the mounted infantry kept up the chase; but numbers of horses dropped down dead, and every villager whom Havelock questioned about the direction which the fugitives had taken lied. On the evening of the 23rd he got within a few hundred yards of them; but the horses were too tired to be able to pass them: and though sorely harassed by the rifles of their pursuers, they succeeded in escaping into the Kaimur hills.

But there was still no rest for them or for the British. It was an axiom of the Commander-in-Chief that no district could be regarded as subdued while a single armed rebel remained within it. He therefore ordered Douglas to dislodge the fugitives from their new asylum. The undertaking involved extraordinary toil and hardship. The hills were covered with dense jungle and huge boulders, which greatly impeded the progress of the columns. In many places the ground was so slippery that the baggage animals fell down. Still Douglas persevered. At midnight on the 24th of November, he saw fires burning some way off in the jungle. As silently as deer-stalkers the troops kept along till, when they were within fifty yards of the fires, a few figures rose and moved off. The troops charged. The rebels stole down the hills, entered the plains, and tried to cross the Ganges. But the captains of some steamers which were patrolling the river opened fire upon them, and sent them flying from the bank. Their spirit was now at last broken. They no longer attempted to preserve their organization. The leaders fled for their lives. The rest skulked off by twos and threes to their homes; and, before the close of the year, peace was restored to the land. Since that time, except for occasional outbreaks of religious fanaticism, which are described in the following chapter of this Gazetteer, the peace of the district has been unbroken.

THE ROYAL VISIT, 1911.

In December of 1911, after the Investiture at Delhi, the King-Emperor came to Arrah, where he attended Divine Service at the Memorial Church, met the principal local residents, and visited the Arrah house.

ARCHÆOLOGY.

Shahabad presents a great contrast to the neighbouring district of Gaya in the absence of the Buddhist images and temples which are so numerous in that part of ancient Magadha. In the greater part of the Gaya district collections of ancient statuary, grouped under the village *pipal* tree and frequently including Buddhist sculptures, are a common sight; but as soon as the Son is crossed, they almost entirely disappear, and with the exception of the Asoka inscription at Sasaram, there is a noticeable absence of Buddhist remains. Ancient Hindu relics are almost as rare, the oldest buildings being the Mundeswari temple; and though there are numerous Brahmanical temples, such as those at Baidyanath and Deo Barunarak, few belong to a very early period. The Muhammadans have left far grander monuments to bear witness to their power than the Hindu rulers of the district; and the finest structures now extant belong to the Suri dynasty or the Mughal period, such as the magnificent specimens of sepulchral architecture at Sasaram and Chainpur and the interesting hill forts of Rohtas and Shergarh. The principal buildings of archæological or historical interest are described in Chapter XV.

CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE

WHEN Dr. Buchanan made his statistical survey of Shahabad at the beginning of the nineteenth century, Chausa pargana lay in Benares, and the Doaba pargana, across the Ganges, which is now in Ballia district was part of Shahabad. He estimated the area of Shahabad at 4,087 square miles, with a population of 1,419,500 souls, giving an average density of 347 to the square mile. In 1849, a return based upon the survey of 1844-46 showed the area as 4,404 square miles, and the population as 1,602,274 or 364 to the square mile. The first regular census was taken in 1872, when the enumeration disclosed a total population of 1,723,974 persons; the area was taken at 4,385 square miles, and the average density of the population was 393 persons to the square mile. The population of the district as at present constituted was then 1,710,471, and by the census of 1881 it had increased to 1,949,900. During the next ten years there was a further growth amounting to 5·8 per cent., and in 1891 the population was returned as 2,060,579 persons; the increase shown in these two decades being largely due to the development of cultivation and the influx of immigrants caused by the opening of the Son Canals. This growth of population was, however, not sustained, and the census of 1901 showed a decline, the number of inhabitants recorded being 1,962,696 persons. In 1911 the population had further GROWTH OF POPULATION.

fallen to 1,865,660. The following table gives the population as found in the census of 1921 :—

	Population, 1921.	Percentage of variation.	
		1911—1921.	1901—1911.
DISTRICT TOTAL ...	**1,816,821**	**— 2·62**	**— 4·94**
Sadr Subdivision ...	**627,795**	**— 0·54**	**— 9·82**
Arrah	275,366	+ 0·46	—12·64
Shahpur	153,623	— 5·06	—11·38
Piro	198,806	+ 1·79	— 4·06
Buxar Subdivision ...	**352,137**	**— 8·05**	**— 8·10**
Buxar	131,274	—11·80	— 4·85
Dumraon	220,863	— 5·67	—10·05
Sasaram Subdivision ...	**538,903**	**— 1·01**	**+ 0·88**
Bikramganj	189,737	— 1·45	+ 3·24
Karghar	95,512	— 4·07	+ 2·92
Sasaram	158,116	— 1·54	— 3·41
Dehri	95,538	+ 4·19	+ 1·70
Bhabhua Subdivision ...	**297,986**	**— 2·96**	**+ 0·22**
Mohania	132,322	— 3·11	— 2·92
Bhabhua	165,664	— 2·85	+ 2·89

Causes of decline.

Regarding these figures Mr. P. C. Tallents makes the following observations in his Census Report. "The census showed a decrease in the population of 48,839 or 2·62 per cent., shared by all subdivisions. The loss is greatest in the Buxar subdivision where it amounts to 8·05 per cent. The two thanas in this subdivision, Buxar and Dumraon, are those in which plague has been most destructive in the last ten years: Buxar also suffered from a virulent outbreak of cholera in 1918 and Dumraon was similarly afflicted in 1917 and 1918. The loss in the adjacent sadr subdivision is lighter than in any other. Shahpur thana which showed a loss of 11·38 per cent. at the last census again shows a loss of 5·06 per cent.; the other two thanas show a slight gain. In the case of Arrah this may be ascribed to the decreasing severity of plague and to recovery from the heavy mortality caused by this disease in previous years: in Piro plague has never been so severe as in the neighbouring thanas; the loss was lightest here at the last census, and on the present occasion the gain is greatest (1·79

per cent). In the Sasaram subdivision the loss is general except in Dehri thana, where the increase of 4·19 per cent. is due to the development of the lime industry and the resulting concentration of labour which, as its occupation was independent of the rainfall, had no cause to emigrate in years of short crops.

SHAHABAD.	1921.		1911.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Actual population ...	895,608	921,213	904,950	960,710
Immigrants	14,094	35,224	18,642	41,965
Emigrants	88,184	60,169	90,681	76,615
Natural population ...	969,698	946,158	985,989	995,360

Karghar thana where the loss is heaviest suffered acutely from cholera in 1918. In the Bhabhua subdivision the loss of 2·96 per cent. is fairly equally shared by both thanas; plague has never assumed formidable dimensions in this subdivision, but there was cholera in 1919 and the scarcity and distress led to emigration to the tea gardens. Here as elsewhere in South Bihar, there was a general decrease of migration at census time. In 1891 the number of female emigrants from Shahabad was over 100,000, well in excess of the number of male emigrants; since then the number has declined at every succeeding census and the decrease is more marked on the present occasion than in the case of the males : the result is that the decline in migration has not reduced the proportion of females in the actual population as elsewhere. In Shahabad therefore the fact that over three-quarters of the loss in the actual population fell on the female sex must be ascribed to the natural decrease of the sex in the last decade.'

Density of population.

In the district as a whole there are 417 persons to the square mile. The density varies considerably in different parts; it is greatest in the rich and highly cultivated tracts to the north, where the people are prosperous and well-to-do; but decreases towards the south, where a large area is covered by the Kaimur hills, which afford but scanty space for cultivation and support a spare population thinly scattered over the plateau. These factors result in a marked variation between the northern and southern subdivisions, as those of Sasaram and Bhabhua support less than half of the number of persons to the square mile which the more fertile areas in the headquarters and Buxar subdivisions maintain. The pressure of the population on the land is

greatest in the Arrah thana, where there are 782 persons to the square mile, and the minimum is reached in the thinly populated tract comprised in the Bhabhua thana, which with 182 persons to the square mile is more sparsely inhabited than any tract in South Bihar.

Towns and villages.

Shahabad is distinctly an agricultural district; and of the total population only six per cent. live in urban areas, the remainder of the inhabitants congregating in 6,078 villages. There are only six towns, Arrah, Bhabhua, Buxar, Dumraon, Jagdispur and Sasaram, with an aggregate population of 101,306 : and Arrah alone accounts for about two-fifths of the whole number. At the last census all the towns except Arrah showed a decrease, which was however very slight in the case of Bhabhua.

Public health.

The health of the people is dealt with in Chapter IV, and it will suffice here to say that even in the rural area the tendency of the people is towards aggregation, and that they cluster in closely packed villages, usually consisting of a main street with narrow and ill-ventilated side lanes. The sanitary conditions are primitive, while the apathy of the people and the habits to which they are rooted render the task of village sanitation on any appreciable scale most difficult. In the towns, matters are better, as a regular system of conservancy is kept up; but none of them except Arrah have a pure water-supply, and none possess adequate drainage. Like the villages, they suffer from crowded and badly aligned blocks of houses intersected by narrow lanes, and the mortality from plague, dysentery and cholera is generally greater than in the rural areas.

LANGUAGE.

The vernacular current over the whole district is the dialect of Bihari Hindi called Bhojpuri* after the pargana of Bhojpur, which was formerly the centre of the power of the family whose head now lives at Dumraon. This dialect, which is spoken by 1,801,404 persons in the district, has been characterized as a handy article made for current use, not too much encumbered by grammatical subtleties, and suitable to an alert active people. In contrast with the Maithili dialect, it pronounces the vowel *a* with the clear sharp-cut accent heard all over central Hindustan and on the other hand it possesses a long drawled vowel *ā* which gives a tone to the whole language. The form current in

---

* For a full account of Bhojpuri, *see* Grierson's Linguistic Survey of India, Vol. V, from which this sketch of the dialect has been condensed.

Shahabad is the standard Bhojpuri, which exhibits a local peculiarity in preferring the letter *r* to *t* in the conjugation of the auxiliary verb (*e.g.*, *bare*, he is, instead of *bate*). Bhojpuri has scarcely any indigenous literature, though a few books have been printed in it, and numerous songs are current, such as the epic of the cowherd Lorik, and what Dr. Grierson calls the Bhojpuri National Anthem, *i.e.*, the song of the stick, in which the many virtues of the *lathi* are rehearsed. The character in general use in writing Bhojpuri is the Kaithi, but the Devanagari is also used by the educated classes.

Muhammadans and Kayasths mostly speak the Awadhi dialect of Eastern Hindi (literally the language of Oudh); and Dr. Grierson considers that this is possibly an example of the survival of the influence of the former Muhammadan court of Lucknow. It is estimated that in Shahabad 137,000 persons speak Awadhi; and this dialect is also commonly used as a sort of language of politeness by the rustics who have picked it up from their Musalman friends and imagine it to be the Hindustani of polite society. The Devanagari and the Kaithi characters are both used in writing Awadhi; but the Persian character is also used by the educated classes, particularly by Muhammadans.

RELIGIONS. Hindus and Muhammadans.

By religion, nearly 93 per cent. of the population are Hindus (1,683,567), and practically all the remainder are Muhammadans (130,509). The latter are relatively less numerous than in any other district in Bihar, forming only a little over seven per cent. of the population, a result hardly to be expected considering the strong footing they acquired in the south. Here a number of Rajputs and other Hindu castes turned Musalman, some being made converts by force and others finding substantial advantages in voluntarily embracing Islam. Such Muhammadans are not uncommon in several villages in Chainpur, where they still practise many Hindu customs. The chief centre of the Muhammadans is in Sasaram town, where they account for forty per cent. of the population. Many of them are Pathans, who are probably descended from the members of the household of Hasan Sur Shah and Sher Shah; but there were Muhammadans in the town long before this period and the ancestors of the Sajjada-nashin were *fakirs* there at a much earlier time. The leading Muhammadan families are, however, immigrants of a comparatively recent date. The Chaudhris of Arrah are, it is true, said to have settled there in the time of Firoz Shah; but other families have

come into Shahabad at a later time, as after the fall of Delhi in 1759 there was an influx of members of the Muhammadan nobility attached to the Mughal court who retired with their followers to the *jagirs* they held in this district.

Christians.

At the census of 1921, 2,162 Christians were enumerated in Shahabad, of whom 1,953 were Indians. The American missionary, the Rev. J. Waskom Pickett, Superintendent of the Methodist Episcopal Church in Arrah, reports that they have seven thousand Indian Christians in Shahabad, most of whom were incorrectly enumerated at the census under their former Hindu castes. The German Lutheran Mission had formerly stations at Dehri and Buxar, of which the Methodist Episcopal Church has now taken charge. There are boarding schools for boys and girls at Arrah; and a boarding school is about to be opened at Bhabhua. The staff in Shahabad includes five American missionaries, eleven ordained Indian ministers, and fifty-six other preachers and teachers. The Chaplain of Dinapore ministers to the Anglican community at Arrah, Buxar and Dehri; and he is in charge of the European cemeteries at those places.

Sikhs.

The Agraharis in Sasaram are Sikhs by religion. They are cloth and grain merchants, divided into two classes, known as the Singh Agraharis and the Munria Agraharis. The former, who number about five hundred persons, profess to be followers of the Guru Govind Singh, revere the Granth, and regard it as an essential of their religion to keep the outward signs of Sikhism. In this belief, they abstain from tobacco, keep their hair and beard unshorn, wear the iron *kara* or bracelet, the wooden *kanga* or comb, and the *kachh* or short drawers. The other sect, the Munrias, who are numerically insignificant, are followers of Nanak, revere his Granth and shave like other Hindus. The Agraharis say they have been settled in Sasaram for fifteen generations, and point to the north as their original home. They still observe a form of initiation for outsiders, like the *pahul* or *amrit* of orthodox Sikhs, which they call *khanda amrit chakhao* or *charna amrit chakhao*, and they also keep up the ceremony of *kara parshad* or the Sikh rite of communion.

RELIGIOUS MOVEMENTS.

In 1893-94 there was an outburst of religious excitement, which found expression in the anti-kine killing agitation, the ploughmen's begging movement, and the tree-daubing mystery. The ploughmen's begging movement, or as it should more properly be called the Mahadeo *puja*, was

a curious exhibition of religious feeling. All ploughmen, the story goes, were obliged to give their cattle three days' rest, and go round the neighbouring villages begging. With the proceeds three wheaten cakes were prepared—one for the ploughman himself, one for his cattle, while the third had to be buried under their stalls. This penance was performed by the people in consequence of a rumour that the god Mahadeo had imposed it to expiate the sin committed by the agricultural community in overworking their cattle. From a note furnished by Mr. C. E. A. W. Oldham, who was Subdivisional Officer of Buxar at the time, it appears that the origin of the movement in this district was a rumour that a man was ploughing a field when Mahadeo appeared to him in the form of a Brahman and warned him not to plough except with four oxen. The ploughman replied that it was not his business to say how many oxen should be used, but the business of his master. The man's master, who appears to have been consulted, declined to allow four oxen for one plough; and the ploughman then went on with his ploughing. Mahadeo again appeared to him in the same guise, and asked him to look behind him. As he did so, he noticed that his plough and pair of oxen had disappeared, and he himself became suddenly blind. The story went on that Mahadeo next appeared to the master in a dream, warning him that he must use four oxen to a plough, or use three, but only plough up to midday. Mahadeo also exhorted him to be more attentive to his worship in future, and prescribed the following *puja* as a penance. He was to go round the country-side begging for two and a half months before the Holi festival carrying a ploughshare, and for two and a half months after the Holi carrying the *juath* or yoke, and after the Chaitnomi a *henga* or harrow. He was to break his waist-string, take one Gorakhpuri pice with him, and beg ten other such pice. From the ten pice obtained by begging he was to spend one pice in purchasing a new waist-string; one pice was to be spent on *ghi* for *hom*; one pice to be given to a Brahman as *dakshina*; and the remaining pice were to be spent on flour, with which three *chapatis* were to be made in the cowshed. One of these *chapatis* he was to eat himself; the second he was to bury in the cowshed, and the third he was to give to one of his oxen to eat.

Ploughman's begging movement.

Though the appearance of Mahadeo was said to have taken place only a day before, people flocked in to bathe in

the Ganges from all sides of the subdivision, from places twenty and thirty miles away in different directions, showing that the rumour had spread from village to village with marvellous rapidity. One of the most remarkable features of this *puja* was the scrupulous care with which for some weeks the people continued to carry out the orders which they supposed had been given them by their god. The remarkably elaborate nature of this penance gives reason, however, to suppose that it had been carefully thought out, and its inception and spread among the villagers has been attributed to the efforts of those interested in the Gorakshini agitation to keep the movement afloat.

The tree-daubing mystery.

Tree-daubing was another widespread movement, the meaning of which still affords ground for speculation. By the most reliable reports it commenced about the latter end of February 1894 in the north-east corner of Bihar in the neighbourhood of the Janakpur shrine, which lies across the border in Nepal. The movement consisted in marking trees with daubs of mud, in which were stuck hairs of different animals, buffaloes' hair and pigs' bristles predominating. It slowly spread through the Gangetic districts, eastwards into Bhagalpur and Purnea, and westwards through many of the districts of the United Provinces. It appeared in a few places in this district, where it was traced in several instances to wandering gangs of *sadhus*. As an explanation of the movement, it was suggested at the time that the sign was intended as an advertisement of the shrine of Janakpur; and this view was accepted officially.

Anti-kine-killing agitation.

The anti-kine-killing agitation of 1893 was due to the activity of the Gorakshini Sabhas or associations for the protection of cattle. These societies, the legitimate object of which is the care of diseased, aged and otherwise useless cattle, started a crusade against the killing of kine, sent out emissaries to preach their doctrines, and collected subscriptions to further their objects. The relations between Hindus and Muhammadans soon became severely strained, and in various parts of the district the feeling aroused among the former manifested itself in the rescue of cattle from Muhammadans and in objections to their slaughtering cattle and selling the meat. The climax of popular excitement was reached at the end of August 1893, when two very serious riots occurred at Koath in the Sasaram subdivision. In the first of these large concourse of Hindus assembled from the neighbouring

villages and made a raid on the Muhammadan butchers of Koath, who were charged with having caught and slaughtered a Brahmani bull. In revenge for this outrage, the Muhammadans made an attack on the Hindu quarter, in the course of which guns were used and several persons were severely injured. The facts proved at the trials which ensued and in the course of a subsequent local enquiry showed that a large number of villages for several miles round Koath were either directly implicated or were in such a disturbed state as to necessitate measures for preserving the peace; and a large body of additional police was accordingly quartered for one year in Koath and forty-six other villages.

The Hindu-Muhammadan r of 1917.

The agitation which had thus appeared in 1893 continued to show its effects from time to time, in strained feelings between Muhammadans and Hindus at the Bakr-Id festival, and in occasional raids on cattle intended, or believed to be intended, for the butchers of Dinapore. During the great war, the feeling became intensified, until the time of the Bakr-Id festival in 1917, when it broke out in riots on an exceptionally large scale. The first disturbance occurred at Ibrahimpur near Piru on the morning of September the 28th, when a large body of Hindus from a distance attacked and looted the village, although there had been a compromise between local Muhammadans and Hindus on the question of the Bakr-Id sacrifice. These rioters dispersed as quickly as they had appeared, and since the compromise had been in effect broken, the Muhammadans performed cow-sacrifice according to their custom. On the morning of the 30th a mob of Hindus which was estimated to number more than twenty-five thousand attacked Ibrahimpur, Piru and the neighbouring villages; and it was only dispersed after a hand-to-hand contest with the police, in the course of which much looting was done and the police-station attacked. Strong reinforcements of Military Police were hurried into the district, and for thirty-six hours, there was an outward calm. On October the 2nd, without further warning, rioting and looting broke out simultaneously over the greater part of the district. For six days law and order disappeared. Large mobs appeared everywhere, attacking Muhammadans, destroying their houses, and looting their property. In the south of the district Muhammadan villagers put up a plucky resistance, and desperate fights attended by bloodshed occurred at Mauna and Turkbigha. The mobs were in many cases led by small

zamindars, who directed the proceedings from elephants or from horseback and contained a large element of the more influential Hindus of the countryside, including Brahmans, Rajputs, Babhans and Kayasthas. The strong detachments of troops which had reached Arrah had at first great difficulty in getting to close quarters across water-logged country with the numerous mobile bodies of rioters, who were well served by their spies; but resistance collapsed as soon as it became possible to establish mufassal military posts and connect them with patrols along the main roads.

PRINCIPAL CASTES. The most numerous Hindu castes are the Ahirs, Brahmans, Rajputs, Koiris and Chamars, these five castes accounting between them for nearly half of the total population.

Ahirs. Numerically the strongest caste is that of the Ahirs or Goalas, who number 249,000 or 13 per cent. of the inhabitants of the district. Their hereditary occupation is that of herdsmen, but with this they combine cultivation, and a large number have given up pastoral pursuits altogether and are only tillers of the soil. They have attained an unenviable reputation as cattle-lifters and furnish more than their proper quota of the jail population. They predominate in the Arrah thana, where there are nearly 50,000 members of the caste.

Brahmans. Next, in order, come the Brahmans, who with 186,900 persons account for over one-tenth of the population. They are most numerous in the Dumraon thana; but the Brahman has a home in every hamlet as a family priest presiding over the worship and social ceremonies of the village community. They are maintained by their religious clients (*jajmans*), but great numbers have taken to agriculture and derive their livelihood from the land.

Rajputs. The Rajputs, who are nearly as numerous (185,000) are perhaps the most interesting of all the castes found in this district; they are found in larger numbers here than in any other district in Bengal, except Saran, and are largely the descendants of the early conquerors of Shahabad. There seems no doubt that Rajputs from Ujjain in Malwa overcame the Cheros, who had established their rule after the downfall of the Gupta dynasty; Raja Bhoj is credited with having subdued them over a large part of the country and with having brought the *pargana* of Bhojpur under his control; and the family records of the Rajas of the Harihobans clan, who formerly

ruled at Bihia, notice a conflict between their chiefs and the Cheros which lasted for hundreds of years and finally terminated in favour of the Rajputs. The Maharajas of Dumraon are Ujjain Rajputs, and a number of the zamindars in this district belong to the same sub-caste and are descendants of the immigrant Rajputs who conquered the Cheros. Shortly after the Muhammadan invasion three Ujjain *sardars* are frequently mentioned in the district annals, *viz.*, those of Jagdispur, Dumraon and Buxar; and for a long time they maintained themselves with the state and power of small potentates. Another important sub-caste is the Raj Kuar, to which belongs the family of the former Hindu Rajas of Chainpur, whose descendants have now for several generations resided at Bhagwanpur, south of Bhabhua. There are many other sub-castes of Rajputs, all of whom appear to have migrated from the north-west. Thus the Besains say that they came from Majhauli Barikpur beyond Mirzapur, and the Bais that they came from Baiswara near Lucknow. The Rajputs of Shahabad formed a large portion of the East India Company's forces, and supplied some of its best soldiers to the sepoy army. The presence in the army of so large a number of these men was one of the chief causes which rendered this the most disaffected district in Bengal during the Mutiny; among those slain at the battle of Gujrajganj, just before the relief of Arrah, were found the sepoys of nine different regiments; and it is well known that the Rajputs of his own district formed the bulk of Kuar Singh's mutineers. They have now taken to more peaceful pursuits, and though they still furnish recruits for the Indian army, they are also found all over Bengal serving as peons, policemen and *darwans*. In the district itself they are usually land owners and cultivators, and in many cases occupy whole villages.

Babhans. Though not so strong numerically (70,000) the Babhans, or Bhuinhar Brahmans, may be mentioned here, as they rank on nearly the same level as the two castes just mentioned and are one of the most important castes in the district. Various traditions as to their origin are current. One is to the effect that they are descended from Brahmans who took to agricultural pursuits, and one of the titles they claim is zamindar Brahman. Another local legend declares that they were originally drummers to Ravana, King of Lanka. Yet another is that Jarasandha, king of Magadha, offered a great sacrifice at which a lakh and a quarter of Brahmans were required to be present.

The Diwan did his best to meet the demand, but was driven to eke out the local supply by distributing sacred threads among members of the lower castes and palming them off on the king as genuine Brahmans. Jarasandha's suspicions being roused by the odd appearance of some of the guests, the Diwan was compelled to guarantee their respectability by eating the food which they had cooked; while the Brahmans thus manufactured, failing to gain admission into their supposed caste, had to set up a caste of their own, the name of which (Babhan or Bahman) is popularly supposed to mean a sham Brahman; just as in some districts an inferior Rajput is called a Raut, the corruption of the name betokening the corruption of the caste. On the other hand, it has been pointed out that Babhan is merely the Pali form of Brahman, and that the word is often found in Asoka's edicts. It has therefore been conjectured that those now known as Babhans remained Buddhists after the Brahmans around them had reverted to Hinduism, and so the Pali name continued to be applied to them; while the synonym Bhuinhar is explained as referring to their having seized the lands attached to the old Buddhist monasteries.

Whatever their origin, they stand on much the same level as Rajputs in this district. Brahmanical titles, such as Misr, Panre and Tewari, are used along with the Rajput titles of Singh, Rai and Thakur; and members of other castes accord to them the salutation *pranam* ordinarily reserved for Brahmans, while the Babhan responds with the benediction *asirbad*. Like the Rajputs they are usually land owners and cultivators; and like them they are fairly prosperous, as they generally have the best irrigated lands, are not too scrupulous towards the lower castes, and when there is likely to be a deficiency of water or when it is urgently wanted, take it first, whilst the weaker have to wait and perhaps go without it.

Koiris.

The other large castes call for only a brief notice. The Koiris (144,000) are skilful and industrious cultivators, who are the best tenants to be found in the district. They are a purely agricultural caste, and also work as market gardeners and rear such crops as vegetables, chillies and potatoes; they are proud of their position as adroit cultivators and have been known to outcaste a man for adulterating the opium produced by him for Government.

The Chamars (123,000) are the tanners of the country; the skins of all cattle dying within their village are their perquisite, and, in return for this privilege, they supply and repair the straps of the villagers' plough yokes and provide their neighbours with shoes at a cheap rate. Not unnaturally they have an ill-name as cattle poisoners and frequently are beaten when suspected of this nefarious practice. The Chamar is also the village drummer and his wife is the indigenous midwife. Chamars.

Among the Muhammadans the weaver caste, Jolaha, is the most numerous (45,000). Like the Chamars they hold a low rank in the social community, and both these castes used to be employed by the zamindars as porters. Buchanan in his account of Shahabad stated that in his time porters were used to carry the baggage of travellers, and weavers and shoe-makers were generally held bound to perform this service whenever required by their landlords, who in return exempted them from ground-rent for their huts. Weaving is their hereditary occupation, but the fabrics woven at their hand-looms have been driven out of the market by machine-made piece-goods. Many of them have thrown up weaving for agriculture, and others have taken to service and trade. A considerable proportion travel through Bengal trading in cloth, piece-goods and carpets, setting out at the commencement of the cold weather and returning to their homes for the rainy season. Jolahas.

According to the census returns, the Kharwars number only seven thousand; but they are practically the only inhabitants of the Kaimur plateau, and the low figure of the census is to be accounted for by the fact that many of them describe themselves as Rajputs. Mr. H. D. Christian, in his account of them which is quoted in the Shahabad Settlement Report of 1918, remarks that they are among the purest aborigines to be found in India, unmixed with any other tribe. They are a Kolarian race, congeners of the Mundas and Cheros who were the first occupiers of Shahabad and neighbouring districts; but they have now to a certain extent become Hinduised, claim to be Rajputs, and generally wear the sacred thread. They do not drink intoxicating liquors or eat beef; but pork is not forbidden food to them. Throughout the tribe the form of exogamy practised is that which forbids inter-marriage within certain degrees of collateral relationship. Infant marriage is considered more respectable than marriage Kharwars.

at a later age; but both are permitted. Widows are permitted to marry again by the *sagai* form.

Village officials.

The patwari in Shahabad is still nominally a Government servant, appointed by the Collector, who can also dismiss him. Till recently he had to file in the Collectorate at certain intervals extracts from the village accounts, which are commonly known as teis-khana returns, from the fact that the original form of return contained twenty-three columns. At the same time, to speak of him as a Government servant, or as anything resembling a Government servant, is misleading; in reality he is almost as completely the servant of the landlord as in other districts. The other village officials in the plains are those found in other parts of Bihar: the *gumashta*, who generally looks after the landlord's affairs in the village; the *barahil*, who assists the *gumashta*; and the *gorait*, the watchman of the village office, who also acts as messenger.

Among the Kharwars in the Kaimur hills, there is a headman and priest (*baiga*) to each village, both offices being often vested in the same man. The *baiga* must inaugurate for each villager the work of sowing or reaping or of transplanting paddy seedlings. The crops cannot be removed from the threshing floor until the *baiga* has propitiated the autochthonous deities at that place. He determines the auspicious day for cutting wood to be burnt for manure. He holds a *jagir* in virtue of his office; and he is entitled to cut a bundle of paddy from each raiyat's field. The office is hereditary; and the sacrificial knife, the emblem of the office, is passed on from father to son.

Kharwar headmen.

The Kharwar headman collects the rent of the villages, and pays it with his own rent to the landlord. It may be remarked that the headmen have been described in the record-of-rights as tenure-holders, a description which is open to some criticism, and may possibly lead in future to misunderstanding.

CHARACTER OF THE PEOPLE.

The Bhojpuri speaking people are, as Sir George Grierson has remarked in his Linguistic Survey of India, curiously different from the others who speak Bihari dialects. They form the fighting nation of the Lower Provinces. An alert and active nationality, with few scruples and considerable abilities, dearly loving a fight for fighting's sake, they have spread all over Aryan India, each man ready to carve his fortune out of any opportunity which may present itself to him. They furnish a rich mine of recruitment to the

Hindustani army, and, on the other hand, they took a prominent part in the Mutiny of 1857. As fond as an Irishman is of a stick, the long-boned, stalwart Bhojpuri, with his staff in hand, is a familiar object striding over fields far from his home. Thousands of them have emigrated to British Colonies and have returned rich men; every year still larger numbers wander over Northern Bengal and seek employment, either honestly, as *palki*-bearers, or otherwise as dacoits. Every Bengal zamindar keeps a posse of these men, euphemistically termed *darwans*, to keep his tenants in order. Calcutta, where they are employed, and feared, by the less heroic natives of Bengal, is full of them. In April of 1758 Clive here raised a battalion of Bhojpuris, which after doing excellent service in the campaign in Bihar of 1761, was destroyed at Patna in the disaster of 1763. Henceforth, until the end of the nineteenth century, the Brahmans and Rajputs of Shahabad formed the backbone of several regiments of the Indian Army. Recruiting officers of late years preferred men from Upper India; but there was still considerable recruiting in Shahabad, and during the recent great war, Shahabad provided far more recruits for combatant service than any other district of Bihar.

Dress. The dress of the people does not differ in any important respect from the costumes worn in the adjoining districts of Gaya and Patna. The better class of Hindus ordinarily wear a piece of cloth (*dhoti*) fastened round the loins and falling to the knee; and over this a long robe (*chapkan*) fastened on the right shoulder. On the head is placed a light skull-cap (*topi*), and the feet are encased in loose country-made shoes, with the toes curled upwards; sometimes, also, a white scarf (*chadar*) is thrown over the shoulders. The material of the dress differs with the weather. In the hot weather, the robe and cap will be of muslin or some light cloth; but in the cold season, stouter cloth is used for the robe, and the cap is made of velvet or some other warm material. A Muhammadan wears, instead of a *dhoti*, long drawers (*pāijāmā*) extending to the ankle, which are often loose, but sometimes very tight, and his robe is buttoned on the left shoulder; but in other respects, his dress resembles that of the Hindu.

On state occasions, Hindus and Muhammadans dress alike. The head-dress now consists of a flat turban (*pagrī*), or of one twisted round the head (*murethā*). Loose drawers take the place of the *dhoti*; and outside, a little above the waist, is

twisted a long piece of cloth (*kamarband*). Shoes of English shape often take the place of the country slipper. The *kamarband* is frequently dispensed with; and in that case a loose open robe (*chogā*), reaching nearly to the feet, is worn, or sometimes a shorter but tighter coat, called an *ebā*. A Hindu shopkeeper will wear a short jacket (*mirzāī*) instead of *chapkan*, but in other respects his dress, though of cheaper materials, will resemble the one just described.

A cultivator wears only a *dhoti* and a sort of plaid (*gamchhā*), which is thrown sometimes round the body, sometimes over the shoulders, and often on the head with one end hanging down the back. A corner of this cloth is often knotted, and used as a sort of purse for keeping spare cash, receipts, etc. The better class of cultivators wear the cap and shoes, but the majority do without them. Inside the house, the poorer classes never wear shoes, but shop-keepers often use wooden sandals. The richer classes sometimes put on a loose coat (*kurta*) instead of the *chapkan*, when they are at home. As a protection against the cold, the richer classes wear shawls both when at home and abroad; but the middle classes who cannot afford shawls, envelope themselves in a sort of padded cloak (*dulāī*).

Among Hindu women the most important article of dress is the combined wrapper and veil known as the *sārī*. This is a long piece of cotton or silk which is wrapped round the middle, and contrived so as to fall in graceful folds below the ankle of one leg, while it shows a part of the other. The upper end crosses the breast, and is thrown forward again or over the head like a veil. The bodice (*kurtā*), which fits tight to the shape, and covers but does not conceal the bust, is as indispensable a part of the dress as the outer garment. In some cases, where a shorter *sari* is worn, an under-garment (*tahband*) is used to cover the lower part of the figure. Musalman women wear drawers (*pāījāmā*), which may be either loose or tight, the bodice (*kurta*) and a sheet (*chadar*), which is put on in the same way as the Hindu *sari*.

Houses.

The houses are divided, in almost all cases, into two principal divisions; one for males, and the other for females. A rich man has generally two courtyards (*āngan*), each surrounded by verandahs, from which doors lead into the various rooms. The front door leads into the outer courtyard, on the left of which is a hall for the reception of guests, and on the right are two or three rooms, which are generally used

as bedrooms for the males. Beyond this courtyard is another, surrounded by the female apartments. On one side are bedrooms, and on the other the kitchen, store-house, and a latrine for females. There is also a sitting-room for the ladies of the household. The houses of the middle classes are smaller; but are constructed on much the same plan. The female division will only contain three or four rooms, besides the kitchen and store-room: one for the owner and his wife; another for the eldest son, if married; and the rest for unmarried girls and maid servants.

Little or no attention is paid to ventilation, even in the better class of houses. All the rooms are jealously closed; and the windows, if there are any, are raised much above the height of a man, and are so small that scarcely any light can penetrate into the room. Among the poorer classes there will be only one room for all the females, and an outer verandah or shed for the reception of visitors. The kitchen is always attached to the female room; and when the family is very poor, the same room has to serve for both cooking and sleeping in. Where houses are built with two or more stories, the ground floor is used for kitchen, store-rooms, etc.; while the other stories are divided into bedrooms and sitting-rooms.

As regards furniture, a cultivator has none but the barest necessaries—a few earthen cooking utensils, and receptacles for water, some pots and jars for keeping his oil, salt, grain, etc.; a small oven (*tawā*) for baking bread; a few brass utensils for eating and washing purposes; a light stone mill (*chakrī*) for splitting grain, and a heavy one (*jāntā*) for grinding flour; two stones, one flat (*sil*) and the other like a roller (*lorhā*), for grinding spices; a wooden mortar (*okhālī*) and pestle (*mūsal*); one or two small bamboo receptacles (*petārā*); mats made of palm leaves (*chatāi*); a rough bed (*khatiā* or *chārpāi*) constructed of coarse string with a bamboo or wooden framework; and one or two cocoanut shell pipes (*nārikel*) for smoking. He has no chests or other receptacles for keeping ornaments or cash, which are commonly kept concealed under ground in the floor of his house, or in a jar or other utensil containing grain or the like. Grain is, however, generally stored in a circular receptacle (*kothi*), with mud sides and a mud cover. There is usually a recess made in one of the walls, which is kept sacred for the household god; but the god himself is often unrepresented, except by a mark of red paint.

GAMES AND AMUSEMENTS OF THE PEOPLE.

There is an infinite variety of games of skill and chance. *Satranj*, the king of games, is the origin of chess, and is played in substantially the same way, except that the pawn's first move is limited to a single square. The pieces are named as follows: The king, *bādshāh*; the queen, *farzī* or *wazīr* (prime minister); the castle, *rokh* (hence the English rook) or *kashtī*; the bishop, *fīl* or *hāthi*; the knight, *ghorā*; and the pawn, *piādā* or foot-soldier. This game is played chiefly by the better classes, who also affect the games of *chausar* and *pachīsī*. *Chausar*, like *pāsā* in Bengal, is played on a board shaped like a cross, the four arms being of the same length, divided into twenty-four squares, eight rows of three, each coloured alternately like a chessboard. It is generally played by two persons. Each player has four or eight men (*gotī*), and the game is played with three dice which are not cubes, but parallelo-pipedons, and are marked on four sides with the numbers 1, 2, 5 and 6. The object of the players is to get all their men round the outer edge of the board, and then up the centre row into the square place in the centre called the *lālghar*, or red-house. He who first gets all his men into the centre place wins the game. *Pachīsī* is played on a similar board by two, three, or four players, each having two men. Instead of three dice, five cowries are used; and the points are numbered according as the cowries fall with the flat side up or down. Should all the cowries fall in the same manner, the thrower scores twenty-five; hence the name of the game. *Rām tīr* is a game like draughts, played on a square board, divided into sixty-four squares, with diagonal lines drawn across it. Each player has thirty-six men, placed on the points of intersection, so that only the centre row is left blank. The moves are made along the lines, and men are taken as in draughts. The one who first clears off all his adversary's men wins. *Naugotīā* is a similar game, but there are only nine pieces on each side, whence the name. The board is in the shape of two equilateral triangles, whose vertices meet at a common point. With the exception of this point, all the points of intersection are occupied by the pieces. *Bāgh-bakrī* or "tiger and goats" is like the English "Fox and Geese." It is played on a board divided into sixteen squares, having diagonal lines across them. The tiger is placed in the centre, and the object of the eighteen goats is to hem him up so that he cannot move.

Games at cards are very numerous. *Naksh-mār* is very similar to our *vingt-et-un*, though it is generally played by only two men. Seventeen, instead of twenty-one, is the number which the players wish to obtain. Court-cards, if red, count 12; and if black, 11. In playing, the hand which contains a court-card wins against a hand containing no court-card, even though the pips count the same, for instance, a red queen, a two and a three, wins against a ten, a five and a two, though both are valued at 17. There are no "naturals," but in other respects the game is played like *vingt-et-un*. *Rangmār* is played by two, three, or four men. The cards are divided equally among the players, one leads a card and the others follow suit, the highest winning the trick. The cards rank as in whist; the ace, *ekā*, counting highest. The tricks are taken up into the hand, and the game is won by the player who can get the whole pack into his possession. *Ganjīfā* is a game played with circular cards. The pack consists of eight suits, named *surkh*, *barāt*, *kamāsh*, *chang*, *tāj*, *safed*, *shamshīr* and *ghulām*. Each suit has twelve cards, named *shāh*, *wazīr*, *dahlā*, *nahlā*, *athā*, *satā*, *chhakā*, *panjā*, *chawā*, *tīyā*, *duā* and *ekā*. In every suit, the king and queen, *shāh* and *wazīr*, count highest. In the four suits first mentioned, the cards rank from 1 to 10, in the remaining suits the cards rank from 10 to 1. The rules of play are involved, and are not easily learnt except by practice. As in western Europe this or that game is said to have been invented in an attempt to cure the *ennui* of some king of France, *rangmar* is said to have been invented for the benefit of a Raja of Jaipur, who was suffering from itch. The favourite game for gamblers is *sorhī*, so called because it is played with sixteen cowries. It is played by two, three or four men, and lookers-on also stake on the game. Each player takes one of the four numbers 5, 6, 7, 8 as his *dāo*, or sign. The *dāo* 5 represents the numbers 1, 5, 9, and 13; the *dāo* 6 represents 2, 6, 10 and 14; the *dāo* 7 represents 3, 7, 11 and 15; and the *dāo* 8 represents 4, 8, 12 and 16. Each player throws the cowries in turn, and the rest stake on their *dāo*. The cowries which fall *chit*, *i.e.*, with the flat side uppermost, are counted. Supposing that it is the turn of the player whose *dāo* is 6 to throw. Should there be 2, 6, 10 or 14 cowries *chit*, the thrower sweeps the board; but if any other number of cowries turn up, he must pay to the player whose *dāo* wins whatever sum he may have staked. As a rule, only great gamblers play

this game, but on the night of the *Diwalī* festival very few refrain from trying their luck.

There are several games played by boys with circular bits of earthenware, called *katīs*. *Katī* is played by a number of persons who divide into two parties. One party puts down their *katīs* in a line, and the other party try to strike these *katīs* from a certain distance. Should any one of them succeed, his whole side mounts on the shoulders of the other side, but if they all fail, then the other side go in, and aim in their turn. *Chīnī* is a similar game, but here the players all aim at a stick. When all have succeeded but one, the other players call him Thief, and throw their *katīs* at him. Boys also play a sort of "trap bat and ball" called *gulīdantā*, and a form of "prisoner's base," called *kabadi*. *Chikā* is played by a number of boys, who form sides. One from each side join hands and strive to pull each other over a line drawn between them.

Field and athletic sports.

The above account of games and amusements repeats, with slight modifications, the account given by Mr. D. B. Allen nearly fifty years ago in his Gazetteer of the district.* Mr. Allen mentions also the custom of keeping fighting rams; but he makes no mention of the indigenous sport of wrestling. The first custom is common in the district; the latter sport is practised with vigour by the manly Bhojpuri. The Rajput of Shahabad is not addicted to equestrian sports in the manner of his congeners in Rajputana; and the sport of pigsticking, for which the country affords favourable opportunities, has on the whole been left to Europeans and to Indians from more western districts. But the schoolboys and students of the towns have to a great extent taken to modern English games. Cricket and lawn-tennis are played; but these games require more or less carefully prepared grounds, and a comparatively expensive equipment, so that they are followed with less enthusiasm than hockey or football. The Association game of football is the form of the game practised in Shahabad, where it has acquired great popularity. There are now organized competitions for challenge shields and cups, pursued with great enthusiasm; and if occasionally the less admirable side of the competitive spirit has been shown, these competitions are ordinarily conducted in accordance with the traditions of good sportsmanship.

---

* Statistical account of Bengal (1877), Vol. XII, pp. 78-81, 229.

CHAPTER IV.

PUBLIC HEALTH.

VITAL STATISTICS.

A COMPARISON of vital statistics for any lengthy period is rendered impossible by the changes in the system of registering births and deaths which have taken place from time to time. In 1869 the duty of reporting deaths was imposed on the village *chaukidars*, and in 1876 the system was extended to births; but the returns received were so incomplete that they were soon discontinued, and, except in towns, deaths alone were registered until 1892, when the collection of statistics of births as well as of deaths was ordered, and the system now in vogue was introduced.

Under this system vital occurrences are reported by the *chaukidars* to the police, who submit monthly returns to the Civil Surgeon, by whom statistics for the whole district are prepared.

During the five years from 1912 to 1916 the mean ratio of births per thousand was 45·5; but in the subsequent quinquennial period it fell to 39·5. Deaths, which in the earlier period were 34·2 per thousand, rose in the second period to 47·3. 1918 was a very unhealthy year, when the deaths reported numbered 150,943 (80·9 per thousand), largely due to the influenza epidemic. Another unhealthy year was 1921, when 97,067 deaths were reported.

Infant mortality.

The following table shows the infant mortality in Shahabad district during the five years ending with 1921.

Year.	Births.		Deaths (under one year old).	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1917	40,313	37,298	8,977	8,077
1918	38,521	36,026	10,816	9,788
1919	33,363	30,705	7,873	7,211
1920	34,607	31,887	8,582	7,202
1921	32,446	30,057	8,479	7,057

The Civil Surgeon ascribes the high infant mortality to the fact that the parents are often badly nourished, and to disregard of the primary rules of sanitation. A large proportion of the infants (7,639 in 1921) died within a week of birth, which is attributed to the ignorance of women, relying entirely on untrained Dais, who have some empirical knowledge of how to deal with maternity cases, but have had no regular training.

DISEASES. Fever.

To the following note on malarial affections in Shahabad, which was prepared for Mr. O'Malley's Gazetteer, it is only necessary to add that the Civil Surgeon reports that the fever which made its appearance in epidemic form in 1879 is still common in the district. The returns of 1918 showed 103,468 deaths ascribed to this cause, but these figures include most of the deaths from the influenza epidemic of that year.

The *chaukidar* who is responsible for the returns is not a medical expert, and can diagnose only a few well-defined diseases; but it may be safely assumed that where, as in Shahabad, the mortality ascribed to fever is unusually high, the greater part of the excess over the normal is due to malarial affections. The disease has been more or less persistent since 1879 ; and in the ten years ending in 1890 the recorded death-rate varied from 18·7 per mille in Belauti (Shahpur) to 31·8 in the Kargahar thana. The worst year of the decade was 1886, when Shahabad was stigmatized as the worst district in the whole Province* in respect of fever mortality, the death-rate ranging from 30·4 per thousand in the Sasaram thana to as much as 42·9 in Kargahar. In the quinquennium 1885—89, the average mortality was higher than in any other part of the Patna Division; and in the last year of this period upwards of ninety per cent. of all the villages in the district suffered from its ravages. During the next decade mortality averaged 24·18 and only twice fell below twenty in the thousand; and when the epidemic was at its height in 1894, the number of deaths due to it reached the appalling total of 78,918 or 38·23 per mille. The disease was not so prevalent in 1901 and 1902, but there was a recrudescence in 1903, the deaths recorded being over 57,000. In 1904 the number of deaths returned as due to fever was 48,600, or 24·77 as compared with 21·06 per mille in the whole of the Patna Division.

The cause of the origin and prevalence of fever in Shahabad is uncertain; and it has been suggested at various times that the outbreak was connected with the great extension of canals and

* *i.e.*, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa.

distributaries from the Son irrigation works, and that the disease was due to the fact that they raised the level of the subsoil water and interfered by their embankments with the natural surface drainage of the country. This view, however, is not supported by the results of recent research regarding the spread of malarial affections; and it is noteworthy that it was no innovation to stop the natural drainage, as from time immemorial it has been the custom to build embankments across its line and to collect water in the rude reservoirs so formed. Besides this, the fever prevailed with intensity in the Gaya district for some years before it began its destructive march through Shahabad; and during its earlier days at least it bore little resemblance to the ordinary malarial type, but was choleraic in its symptoms and rapidly fatal. It has been suggested therefore that in Shahabad, as in Gaya and Monghyr, the fever was originally a real epidemic, contagious in its character, which extended northward from the original scene of its ravages in the Burdwan Division.

Influenza. Shahabad district did not escape from the world-wide epidemic of influenza in 1918, which again attacked the district with less violence in the following year. The southern portion of the district, which is liable to be affected by drought, suffered most severely, as the bad rainfall of 1918 left the people ill-prepared to withstand the ravages of epidemic disease. Deaths from influenza were generally returned as caused by fever, as has been already mentioned; but it is this epidemic which accounts for the abnormal figures of 1918. The disease first appeared in a mild form early in July and abated temporarily after three or four weeks' stay. It reappeared in September and rapidly spread over the district, the utmost severity of the disease being marked in the months of November and December. In the second period of the epidemic the disease was very virulent and fatal. Death in the majority of cases was due to lung complications in the form of pneumonia.

Plague. Plague has been present in recurring epidemics since the year 1900. In that year it was imported from the neighbouring districts, but only the north-east of Shahabad was attacked and the mortality caused was very slight. In 1901 the disease again appeared, and this year the outbreak was much more serious, as over five thousand deaths were due to its ravages; but in the following year the mortality decreased to 2,280. Plague recurred with greater severity in 1903, when, in spite of the immunity of the district between June and September, there

were altogether 7,600 deaths. In 1904 the epidemic accounted for no less than 10,480 deaths, the death-rate being 5·34 per thousand of the population; and in the first six months of 1905 the disease raged with still greater virulence and caused over 15,800 deaths.

Since that time the highest death-roll from this cause was in 1914 (12,880), closely followed by the returns of 1911 and 1918 (12,859 and 12,685 respectively). The death-rate from plague during these years has varied from 0·69 per mille in 1922 to 6·86 in 1914. The disease pursues a regular course, decreasing or disappearing entirely in the hot and rainy weather months, reappearing after the rains and reaching its climax in the cold weather. The only means employed by the people to stamp out the disease are disinfection and the evacuation of affected areas. The former method is unpopular and has been but little resorted to. Evacuation has, however, increased in popularity, as the people, though at first averse to it, have year by year become more ready to leave their houses and to build temporary shelters during the period of the epidemic. Inoculation as a preventive measure is by no means popular.

Cholera. The most severe cholera epidemic during the present century occurred in 1908, when 21,280 persons died of this disease, representing 11·41 per mille. In that year the epidemic was aided by the delay in the commencement of the monsoon rains; and the Civil Surgeon reports that the disease diminished greatly when sufficient rain fell to flush and cleanse infected sources of drinking supply. In more recent years the district suffered in the epidemic which visited south Bihar in 1921, when 16,937 persons died in Shahabad, representing 9·3 per mille. Of this number 4,858 died in July, and 8,994 in August. The climatic conditions of that season were particularly favourable to the multiplication of flies. There was a temporary failure of the monsoon rains for five or six weeks after their first onset in the middle of June. Temperature and humidity both favoured the rapid multiplication of flies, and there was no heavy rain to wash the land clean.*

SANITATION. Outside the municipalities sanitary effort is almost a negligible quantity. On the outbreak of epidemics of cholera, Indian doctors, trained compounders, and vaccinators of the epidemic reserve are despatched to the affected villages and the worst of them are disinfected; but the people show an utter

* On the agency of flies in spreading cholera, and the circumstances of this epidemic, see the Annual Public Health Report for Bihar and Orissa, 1921, by Lt.-Col. W. C. Ross, I.M.S., pp. 5-8.

disregard for the commonest sanitary rules, and it is most difficult to overcome the *vis inertiæ* encountered in all classes where sanitation is concerned. Within municipal areas there is a system of conservancy; night-soil and other refuse are removed; and steps are taken to protect the sources of water-supply. Arrah is, however, the only town which has a regular system of water-supply, an account of which will be found in chapter XIII.

VACCINATION. Vaccination is compulsory only in municipal areas, where it is performed by vaccinators who receive a fixed salary from the municipality. In rural areas it is carried out by licensed vaccinators who receive no salary, but are allowed to charge a fee of two annas for each person vaccinated. The number of licensed vaccinators is continually fluctuating; but the number employed at one time is generally about a hundred. The work is supervised by a District Inspector, and four Sub-Inspectors, one for each subdivision; all these officers being under the control of the Civil Surgeon.

The district, as a whole, is strongly opposed to vaccination, and operations are only carried out with great difficulty. The same difficulty is experienced in the adjoining districts in which the Bhojpuri-speaking races prevail; and Shahabad, Saran, Ghazipur and Ballia, which are all backward districts, present a striking contrast in this respect to the Magahi-speaking districts of Patna and Gaya, where vaccination does not meet with anything like as much opposition among a less virile and more amenable people. When it was first introduced the people were bitterly opposed to the innovation; but finally Raja Bikramajit Singh of Dumraon consented, on the persuasion of the Collector, to vaccinate his grandsons, and this example had a most beneficial influence. The hostility of the majority of the people to vaccination is gradually decreasing, as appears from the fact that, whereas in 1900-01 the number of vaccinations was only 11·78 per mille, the proportion in 1921-22 was 38.

Medical Institutions. The number of medical institutions has almost doubled within the last eighteen years; and there are now twenty-five hospitals and dispensaries in the district, of which the oldest and most important is that at Arrah. Next in importance are the hospitals at the subdivisional headquarters stations of Bhabhua, Buxar and Sasaram. The Public Works Department maintains hospitals at Dehri, Agiaon, Basaon, Koath, Manoharpur and Sikraul, primarily for the medical relief of persons

employed on the canals, which are of great benefit to the people of the localities mentioned. In addition to the fixed dispensaries, there were three travelling dispensaries (field hospitals) working in the district in 1922. They treated 462 patients in the Buxar subdivision, 2,445 in Sasaram, and 4,564 in the sadr subdivision. The Civil Surgeon reports that these travelling dispensaries are very useful institutions; but it is necessary to find young and energetic medical men to manage them.

The following table shows the receipts and expenditure of hospitals and dispensaries in 1922 :—

Hospital or dispensary.	Receipts.				Expenditure.	
	Government Grants.	District Board.	Municipality.	Subscriptions.	Establishment.	Medicine, etc.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Arrah	910	22,877	4,383	1,113	14,016	13,931
Basaon	1,730	605	...	...	1,908	350
Kochus	54	1,812	...	...	1,291	404
Koath	1,545	738	...	...	1,847	341
Sikraul	1,456	656	...	...	1,771	275
Sasaram	1,025	4,004	1,830	1,692	4,673	2,528
Jagdispur	410	2,000	362	1,044	1,209	1,752
Nokha	145	4,935	...	27	1,023	4,033
Shahpur	125	2,969	...	24	1,287	1,498
Akbarpur	35	1,718	...	12	1,433	180
Piru	40	1,751	...	...	1,273	379
Agiaon	1,962	459	...	...	2,187	114
Adhara	10	380	...	...	...	380
Bhabhua	351	2,250	483	149	1,316	1,463
Nasriganj ...	679	5,136	...	573	1,698	4,114
Ghaziapur ...	130	2,274	...	...	1,476	718
Surajpura	195	5,114	...	108	2,511	2,576
Saranja	15	917	...	...	210	702
Raghunathpur ...	30	800	...	...	1,164	762
Mohania	58	1,413	...	45	1,351	249
Buxar	2,023	4,000	1,000	665	2,530	4,762
Chenari	135	1,938	...	...	1,083	714
Dehri	3,993	...	...	...	2,558	1,098
Dumraon * ...			...	...	7,889	2,470
Manoharpur ...	1,235	...	...	...	886	324
Travelling.						
Sadr	20	2,082	...	...	1,381	647
Buxar	15	445	...	...	314	71
Sasaram	12	2,139	...	...	1,116	823
Total ...	18,338	73,412	8,058	5,452	61,401	47,658

* Supported entirely by Maharaja Bahadur Kesho Prashad Singh of Dumraon.

CHAPTER V.

AGRICULTURE AND FORESTS.

SHAHABAD is naturally divided into two well-defined tracts, the agricultural conditions of which are widely different. The southern portion is occupied by the Kaimur hills, an area of undulating plateau, mostly covered with jungle, thinly inhabited and sparsely cultivated. The central and northern portions of the district on the other hand are fully cultivated and sustain a numerous population. GENERAL CONDITIONS.

The greater part of the plateau is unfit for cultivation owing to its rocky nature and to the forest growth which covers it. There are no facilities for irrigation; only a few villages are found scattered over the table-land; and cultivation is confined to the lands in their immediate vicinity. The attention of the raiyats is chiefly devoted to the cultivation of the narrow valleys and depressions lying between the higher ridges which break the surface of the plateau, as these valleys contain a rich soil, are well watered by springs and produce excellent rice. Wheat, barley and mustard are raised on the fields surrounding their homesteads, which are protected by hedges of dry thorns against the ravages of wild pig and other animals; and a considerable space is also cleared round each village for grazing. In the rainy season these lands afford abundant pasturage, but are generally dry and arid in the hot weather; they are kept clear by being ploughed after long fallows and are then sown with pulse.

North of the hills, the country consists of old alluvium, except for a narrow strip of recent alluvium between the old Patna-Buxar road and the Ganges. The latter tract is regularly flooded by the Ganges; and, except for the villages and plantations on higher ground, it usually continues under water for four months during the rainy season. The periodical deposits of river silt maintain a perfectly level surface, and the soil thus fertilized produces magnificent cold weather crops.

The land is ploughed as soon as the water recedes, and is then sown with wheat, barley, pulse and other food-crops, which require but little care and assistance to yield abundant harvests. In the remainder of the district, rice is the principal crop, but the rainfall is often insufficient to bring it to maturity and has to be supplemented by artificial irrigation, either from the network of channels and distributaries issuing from the Son Canals, or from artificial reservoirs, for which the broken surface affords facilities.

In the whole district * 2,727 square miles are cultivated, about 850 square miles being irrigated from the canals; and the amount of culturable waste is 345 square miles. Altogether 900 square miles are twice cropped; and a large variety of staples are raised, several crops, such as gram, wheat, sesamum and linseed, being sometimes grown in the same field.

Soils.

Clay is the characteristic soil in the district and is the basis of all the other soil formations. Admixtures of sand alter its texture and quality, and the soil is designated clayey or sandy, according as clay or sand predominates, loams coming between the two extremes. Clayey soils are generally known as *kewal*, *matiyar*, *karail* and *gurmat*; the distinction between each is mainly one of tenacity and colour, and the commonest is *karail*, which is mostly clay. This prevails through the whole of the district west of the Arrah-Sasaram road and north of the Grand Trunk Road; it is fairly retentive of moisture and is well suited both for rice and *rabi* crops, such as wheat, linseed, lentils and gram, the crop chosen depending on the level of the land and the possibility of irrigation. Loamy soils, the common name for which is *doras*, predominate south of the Grand Trunk Road, where they are annually fertilized by the hill streams, but they are also common in the canal irrigation area. *Doras* is a rich loam which grows good crops of rice, sugarcane, poppy, mustard and linseed; the name is frequently applied to soil in the immediate vicinity of village sites, and is distinguished from loams farther afield by such designations as *dihi* or *goenr*. Loam mixed with sand is called *balmat* or *balsundar*; where the sand predominates it is called *sigta*. Where such soil is of very loose texture it is often known as *dhus*, and when

* The figures showing the area under cultivation and the acreage of various crops are taken from Mr. J. A. Hubback's Settlement Report of 1918.

it is on a high level and hard enough to allow the water to flow readily off, it is called *tanr*. Soils consisting chiefly of fine sand (*bal* or *benga*) are common along a strip three miles broad on the west bank of the Son, and require continuous irrigation to enable them to produce good crops; but as a rule, sandy soils which contain a larger proportion of clay are the best available for the cultivation of rice, if they are benefited by canal irrigation. In the hills, the soil in the saucer-shaped valleys found between the undulating ridges consists of a rich vegetable mould swept down from above ; and the low-lying strip along the Ganges consists of recent alluvium, known locally as *kadai*, which is periodically fertilized by fresh deposits of silt.

PRINCIPAL CROPS

The crops grown in Shahabad are divided into three great divisions, the *aghani*, *bhadoi* and *rabi* crops. The *aghani* is the winter crop which is cut in the month of Aghan (November-December), the *bhadoi* is the early or autumn crop, reaped in the month of Bhado (August-September), consisting of sixty days' rice, *marua*, *kodo*, Indian-corn, millets and less important grains; while the *rabi* crop, which is so called because it is harvested in the spring, includes such cold-weather crops as wheat, barley, oats and pulses. Out of the total cropped area 43 per cent. grows *aghani*; 78 per cent. grows *rabi*; and only in 10 per cent. are *bhadoi* crops raised.* The latter is, therefore, relatively an unimportant crops, and the people are mainly dependent on the *rabi* and *aghani* crops.

Aghani rice.

Rice, which occupies a normal area of 685,000 acres or 39 per cent. of the whole cropped area, forms the staple crop of the district. The *aghani* or winter rice forms the greater part of this crop and is raised on over 622,100 acres. It is sown broadcast after the commencement of the rains in June or July on lands selected for seed nurseries, which have previously been ploughed three or four times. After four or six weeks, when the young plants are about a foot high, they are transplanted; each plant is pulled out from the land, which is soft with standing water, and planted again, in rows from two to three inches apart, in flooded fields, which have been reploughed till the whole surface is reduced to mud. The rice is then left to mature, with the aid of water, till towards the end of September. The water is then drained off and the fields are allowed to dry for fifteen days, and at the end of

* The reader may be reminded that we here deal with *net* cropped area, and that of the area on which these crops are grown 31 per cent. bears more than one crop.

that time they are again flooded. It is this practice, known as *nigar*, which makes the rainfall or, failing that, irrigation essential to a successful harvest. These late rains (the *Hathiya*) are the most important in the year, as not only are they required to bring the winter crop to maturity, but also to provide moisture for the sowing of the *rabi* crops. Should no rain fall at this period, or if water cannot be procured from artificial sources, the plants will wither and become only fit for fodder; but if seasonable showers fall or facilities for irrigation be available, the rice comes to maturity in November or December.

Other kinds of rice.

Some winter rice known as *bawag* is not transplanted; it is sown broadcast on low lands at the commencement of the rains, and also in years in which there has not been sufficient moisture to allow of transplantation at the proper time. The *bhadoi* rice, which rovers 62,700 acres, is also sown broadcast in June or July and not transplanted; it is regarded as a sixty days' crop, and is generally harvested in August or September. There is another kind of rice, known as *boro* rice, which is sown in January, transplanted after a month, and cut in April. It is grown only on marsh lands and in the beds of shallow rivers, and the area cultivated with it is inconsiderable.

A noticeable feature of rice cultivation is the way in which it is conducted religiously according to lunar* asterisms (*nachhattras*). The seed-beds throughout the country are, if possible, sown within a period of fifteen days, called the *Adra nachhattra*, which lasts from about the 20th of June to the 5th of July. Transplantation from the seed-beds goes on during the *Punarbas*, *Pukh* and *Asres nachhattras* (18th of July—15th of August). The water on the fields in which the young plant has grown up after transplantation is regularly drained off in the *Utra nachhattras* (12th—25th of September), a period when, as a rule, there is little rain; and after the exposure of the soil to the air and sun, the usual heavy rain of the *Hathiya nachhattra* (26th of September—7th of October) is awaited. After this, it is the universal custom to keep the fields wet during the *Chitra nachhattra* (8th—20th of October); and at the commencement of the *Siwati nachhattra* (21st of October—3rd of November) they are again

* As the *nachhattras* are calculated according to phases of the moon, they vary slightly from English dates; but the greatest variation is only five days.

drained, and the paddy is left to itself till the *Bisakha nachhattra* (4th—15th of November) when it is cut.

Although there are sometimes slight variations in the times of sowing and transplanting from those gvien above, yet the cultivators are always extremely strict in draining off the water from the fields in the *Utra nachhattra*. It may be said that every cultivator begins, if he possibly can, to let off the water on the first day of that *nachhattra*, and this is done, without any hesitation, in the country commanded by the canals, because the cultivator looks to the Irrigation authorities to supply him with water, whether the *Hathiya* rain fails entirely or not. It is generally agreed that after this drainage (*nigar*), rice plants cannot exist for more than fifteen to twenty days, unless watered, without rapid deterioration; and as no raiyat will, in any circumstances, take water till the *Hathiya nachhattra* has commenced, the Canal Department is called upon to irrigate within a very few days every acre under lease. If water is delayed a week after it is wanted at this stage, the crop suffers; if it is delayed three weeks, it withers beyond redemption.

Bhadoi crops.

The *bhadoi* crops require plenty of rain with intervals of bright sunshine to bring them to maturity, and constant weeding is necessary for a good harvest. The time of sowing depends on the breaking of the monsoon; if the rainfall is early, they are sown in the beginning of June; but they can be sown as late as the middle of July without danger of loss of the crop. Harvesting usually extends from the 15th of July to the 15th of October.

The principal *bhadoi* crop is maize (*zea mays*), or Indian corn (*makai*), which is raised on 43,000 acres; it is sown from the 20th of June to the 20th of July, and cut from the 15th of July to the 15th of August. Next in importance to maize comes *marua* (*eleusine coracana*), a valuable millet occupying nearly 10,000 acres, which is grown from the 15th of June to the 20th of July, and cut from the 15th of August to the 15th of October. It is partly sown broadcast and partly transplanted to ground that afterwards gives a winter crop. The grain is largely consumed by the poorer classes in the form of *sattu*, or is converted into flour and made into a coarse bread; in bad seasons, when the rice crop fails, it supports the people till the spring crops have been harvested. Among millets *jowar* (*sorghum vulgare*) is grown on 24,800 acres (2,900 *bhadoi* and the rest *aghani*), and *bajra* or spiked millet

(*pennisetum typhoideum*) on 10,000 acres; they are sown in July and reaped in the beginning of the cold weather. *Kodo* (*paspalum scrobiculatum*) is sown from the 20th of June to the 31st of July, and cut from the 19th of September to the 3rd of December. It is a millet cheaper than rice, which is popular with the poorer classes, as it can be readily grown on an inferior soil; it is eaten boiled like rice or sometimes in *chapatis*, but is not very nutritious. The chief oilseed grown at this time of the year is *til* or gingelly (*sesamum indicum*) which is sown in July and reaped in September; its total acreage is, however, only 1,700. The caster-oil plant (*ricinus communis*) is sown from the 20th of June to the 1st of August and is cut from the 29th of December to the 30th of April.

Rabi crops.

Ploughing of the fields for the *rabi* crops commences early in the rains and is continued at convenient intervals, sufficient time being given to allow the upturned soil to be exposed to the air. In the case of clay soils in unirrigated parts, more frequent ploughing is necessary for all *rabi* crops, because otherwise the soil would become so hard that, if there were no rain at the sowing time, a crop could not be sown. The time of sowing *rabi* is generally regulated by two circumstances—the heavy rains of the *Hathiya nachhattra* (26th of September to 7th of October) and the approaching cold season. If sown too late, the plants will not become strong enough to resist the cold; if sown too early, the heavy rain will probably drown the seed and sprouting crop, and so necessitate re-sowing. The cultivators are thus anxious to sow as soon as the heavy rains have ceased, and the general rule is that the proper time for sowing most *rabi* crops is the *Chitra nachhattra* (8th to 20th of October) and that it must not be delayed beyond the *Siwati nachhattra* (21st of October—3rd of November). A sufficient supply of water is essential at this time; later on several waterings are required, and if there is no rain, the crops have to depend on well irrigation. They are finally harvested between the last week of February and the middle of April.

The most important of the cereals is wheat, which occupies altogether 227,600 acres. It is generally sown broadcast on sandy soil, and requires as a rule four waterings. It is frequently sown on lands from which a crop of early rice has been taken, and is often sown together with barley, or with gram, mustard, or linseed. The stubble is grazed by cattle, and the pounded straw (*bhusa*) is used as fodder. Less

than half the area under wheat is occupied by barley (*hordeum vulgare*), which is sown partly with wheat, partly by itself, and partly with pulse. Like wheat, barley is sown broadcast and requires four waterings.

The other great class of *rabi* crops consists of pulses, of which gram or *but* (*cicer arietinum*) is by far the most extensively grown, 337,700 acres being given up to it. Besides forming an excellent fodder for fattening horses, this pulse is eaten by cultivators in all stages of its growth. The young leaf is eaten and the grain is split and converted into *dal*, or pounded into *sattu*. Among other crops may be mentioned peas, the *china* millet (*panicum miliaceum*), *kurthi* (*dolichos biflorus*) and various pulses and lentils, such as *rahar* (*cajanus indicus*), *masuri* (*ervum lens*) and *khesari* (*lathyrus sativus*). The crop last named is frequently sown broadcast among the rice stubble. It requires no care, and the grain is eaten by the poorer classes, who, unlike the people of Eastern Bengal, have no prejudice against its use.

Oilseeds. Oilseeds are important among the *rabi* crops. The chief is linseed (*linum usitatissimum*) which is grown on 131,400 acres; like gram it is sown in the standing *aghani* rice about a fortnight before it is cut. Mustard (*sinapis nigra*) accounts for 12,200 acres; it is sown from the 15th of October to the 20th of November, and cut between Christmas and the end of February, but little is left on the ground after the beginning of February.

Sugarcane. The most important of the other crops, now that the cultivation of opium has been abandoned, is sugarcane, which covers about 40,000 acres, and is one of the most valuable crops of the district. It is planted in February or March, and occupies the ground till the beginning of the next year, taking as a rule ten or eleven months to ripen. It is planted in cuttings of about a foot in length, in rows about two feet apart. When the plant begins to sprout, it is well watered and the surrounding earth is loosened. Each plant grows into a cluster of canes, which are generally ready for cutting in January or February. The crop requires great care, and must have seven or eight waterings, even if other crops have to do without water in consequence. A powerful stimulus was given to the cultivation of sugarcane by the introduction of the iron roller mills worked by bullock power, invented in 1874 by the proprietors of the Bihia estate and hence known as

the Bihia mills. Some years indeed elapsed before their great superiority over the rude machines in use was recognized; but the raiyat, in spite of his conversatism, learnt to appreciate their advantages; their popularity is now firmly established; and the old fashioned appliances which necessitated the cutting up of the cane and extracted a mere fraction of the juice are now no longer seen.

uits and getables.

Among the cultivated fruits the commonest are the plantain, mango, orange, lemon, *lichi (nephelium litchi)*, jack fruit (*artocarpus integrifolia*) and custard-apple (*anona squamosa*). The date-palm is cultivated for the sake of its juice, from which a liquor, *tari*, is manufactured. The *mahua* flower is used for the manufacture of country spirit, and is also eaten by the poorer classes, especially by those living near the jungles. Vegetables are cultivated in garden plots for household use, and also on a larger scale in the neighbourhood of towns. The most extensively grown are the egg-plant or *baigun (solanum melongena)*, ground-nut (*trichosanthes dioica*); pumpkin (*lagenaria vulgaris*) and gourd (*benincasa cerifera*), which are grown in the rains, while in the winter carrots, radishes, potatoes and melons are cultivated. Among condiments the favourite is the chilli, which is grown all the year round, carraway (*zira*), coriander (*dhaniya*) and aniseed (*sonf*) are all cultivated from October to March. Carraway and aniseed are largely grown in the Bhabhua subdivision, whence they are exported to other districts.

XTENSION OF ULTIVATION.

Dr. Buchanan estimated that out of a total area of 4,087 square miles, as many as 1,746 square miles were waste. Of this area 764 square miles were occupied by hills and tableland, while 672 square miles consisted of forests, jungles, and deserted villages and fields; and he left it on record that the lands near Nokha had not yet recovered from the desolation caused by the wars of Kasim Ali, and that in some *parganas* a large portion of the land was either overgrown with stunted woods or had lately been deserted. Even as late as the Mutiny, the country round Jagdispur was covered with dense jungle in which the mutineers found a secure retreat; and Government was obliged to have it cleared in order to deprive the rebels of their stronghold. The jungle, covering an area of over 25,000 acres, was cleared; and the land is now entirely under cultivation and supports a numerous and thriving peasantry. After the introduction of canals many tracts of sand and jungle were brought under the plough; and the

cultivation of rice increased. In the beginning of the nineteenth century it was estimated that 2,297 square miles or 56 per cent. of the district were occupied by fields, gardens, plantations and houses; shortly before the completion of the canals, the cultivated area was taken to be 1,690,000 acres or 60 per cent. of the district area; and now the normal area under cultivation is 1,745,809 acres or 64 per cent. of the whole district.

CATTLE.

The cattle raised in the district are generally of a mediocre stamp; little care is taken in selecting bulls for breeding, immature or poor specimens being used; and the dedicated (Brahmani) bulls are usually no better than their fellows, though the freedom allowed to them in grazing keeps them in better condition. Something is being done to improve the breed by the importation of breeding bulls on the Government estates and by the District Board; but in a great part of the district there is scarcity of land for pasturage. Herds, near the hills, are driven up to the grazing lands on the plateau, but in the plains all the land available has been given up to cultivation; and the cattle have to be content with the scanty herbage found in the arid fields, or they are stall fed on *khesari* or chopped rice straw.

The following statistics of agricultural stock of tenants in Shahabad were obtained during the survey and settlement operations:—

Cows	181,403
Bulls and bullocks	354,039
Male buffaloes	11,503
Cow buffaloes	104,826
Horses and ponies	5,323
Calves (including buffalo calves)	203,449
Sheep	63,669
Goats	44,697
Mules and donkeys	2,622

156,561 ploughs and 4,609 bullock-carts were enumerated at the same time.

Veterinary assistance.

There is a veterinary hospital at Arrah, and veterinary dispensaries at Arrah, Buxar, Sasaram and Bhabhua, under the District Board. The hospital at Arrah treated 1,260 animals in 1922, as against 764 in 1909; and it is evidently growing in popularity. The most prevalent disease among

cattle is rinderpest, which was particularly rife in 1916-17, when 9,462 cattle were affected, of whom 6,810 died.

FORESTS. The only forests in the district are those scattered over the Kaimur hills; the growth, however, is not luxuriant, and there is now no large timber left. The first scientific examination of these forests appears to have been made in 1872, when an officer of the Forest Department visited the plateau. The result was disappointing; not one tree was met with from which a twenty-foot beam could be cut; the height and girth of most of the trees were small, and it was reported that the timber was not worth conserving. The local officers thereupon pointed out that owing to the absence of any system of conservancy in the past, the forests had suffered from reckless clearance and repeated conflagrations, and they urged that it was advisable to develop what remained and to stop the indiscriminate destruction which was going on. As a result of this representation, an Assistant Conservator was sent in 1876 to re-examine the tract; and he reported that though the forest on the Rohtas plateau was inferior, the slopes were fairly wooded, bamboos were plentiful, and the mixed forest contained a fair amount of *sida*, *persar*, *khair* and ebony. On the Rehal table-land *sal* and a considerable growth of ebony was found, and the Bans-i-Khoh valley contained an ebony forest in which that tree grew to fine dimensions. None of the blocks contained much large timber, but there was a fair amount of young growth; and it was held that large timber would be produced if the forests were protected against reckless cutting. The Conservator accordingly recommended that they should be reserved; and Government having decided to reserve an area of thirty-eight square miles divided into four blocks (the Rohtas plateau, the Rohtas slopes, the Rehal plateau and the Bans-i-Khoh), a notification was issued in September 1876 declaring them Forest Reserves. It was subsequently ascertained, however, that this notification included areas which were not the property of Government; and it was accordingly cancelled in 1879. Until 1895 nothing was done to protect or develop the natural forest growth; but in that year the area which had been reserved in 1876 was proclaimed protected forest.* Much of the forest has however now gone; the southern half of the Rohtas plateau is almost completely

* Notification No. 5441, dated December 16th, 1895 (*Calcutta Gazette*, 1895, Part I, page 1203).

denuded, and even the northern part is very poorly stocked; it is covered for the most part with scrub jungle and there is no continuous area of large timber; but some fine trees grow near the Fort which give the grounds a park-like appearance. On the Rehal plateau there are some patches of fair timber, but the *sal* is stunted and of small dimensions, and the old trees are gnarled and twisted. Timber of all sorts appears to decay early, and the *sal* grows in narrow irregular belts interspersed with mixed forest of inferior character. Practically the only articles of export are bamboos, which grow in great profusion along the slopes of the hills and plateau.

CHAPTER VI.

IRRIGATION.

THE agricultural prosperity of the district depends on artificial irrigation, without which many tracts would be uncultivated waste, and the land would be unable to grow sufficient food-crops to sustain its population. The three great sources of irrigation are artificial reservoirs, wells and the Son Canals, all of which help to supplement the natural supply of water and to compensate for its inadequacy or untimely distribution.*

RTIFICIAL RESERVOIRS.

The system of irrigation by means of *ahars* is an indigenous method which has been practised from time immemorial, and was clearly developed in order to make the most of a limited rainfall. The country slopes gradually from the south-east corner of the district towards the west and north, with an average fall northwards of three feet in the mile. The rain-water quickly runs off this slope; the soil, which consists of old alluvium, is unable to absorb or retain it; and the cultivation of the rice crop would be impossible, if the water were not impounded. This is effected by means of low embankments thrown up in the depressions lying between the ridges and gentle undulations which break the surface of the country. The long shallow tanks thus formed, which are known as *ahars*, constitute artificial catchment basins which receive the water coming down from the adjacent lands, and by intercepting the line of drainage, prevent it from flowing off to the north and leaving the soil devoid of moisture. Their utility is further increased in some cases by water channels (*pains*), constructed to the nearest stream or water-course, which lead into them the water which would otherwise flow past the fields, and thus make them the

* The statistics for private irrigation works in this chapter are taken from the Settlement Report. Statistics for canal irrigation have been supplied by the Superintending Engineer.

receptacle of all the water available in the neighbourhood. These reservoirs contain a store of water which in years of ample and well distributed rainfall is available when the crops most need it, *i.e.*, in June to July, when it is absolutely essential for transplanting the paddy, and during the lunar asterism of the *Hathiya*, in the end of September and beginning of October, when abundant moisture is required for swelling out and maturing the ripening grain. At these periods, and also at any other time when the rainfall is insufficient for the crops, the water is let out from the *ahar* and distributed among the fields; and these again are enclosed by low banks *(kiari)*, which retain the rain-water or that brought in from the *ahar*, and prevent its escaping until the crop has been thoroughly watered.

The system, though not so complete and extensive as in the neighbouring district of Gaya, serves a large area, approximately 179,000 acres. It is admirably adapted for a country with the natural features possessed by Shahabad, but depends for its success both on an adequate rainfall and on the proper construction and maintenance of the embankments composing the *ahars*. These earthworks are subject to continual wear and tear, and are liable to be swept away by a rush of water if the rainfall is excessive; and the weak point of the system is that too often they are allowed to fall to ruin, owing either to careless husbandry, or to the neglect and apathy of the landlords where the system of produce rents prevails and the zamindars are responsible for their upkeep. The essential features of this indigenous method of irrigation and the defect mentioned above attracted the notice of Buchanan in the beginning of the nineteenth century. According to his account, " Where the assessment has been so high as to excite industry, all along the gentle declivities at some distance from the village have been drawn ditches * which serve as reservoirs, receiving the water above and collecting it for the supply of the fields below in occasional droughts. The fields below are, therefcre, usually cultivated with rice, while those between the reservoirs and the villages are cultivated with crops that come to maturity in spring and

---

* The word ditch, which is rather equivalent to *nali* or *pain*, is commonly used by English-speaking Indians in Shahabad as equivalent to *garha*, or low-lying land in which water accumulates. It is so used here by Buchanan; but the *ahar* is not a ditch. It is ordinarily made by placing an embankment at the lower end of sloping land, where the water stands deepest, with containing embankments at the two sides.

do not require so much water as rice does." The lower parts are, he states, usually called *keyari* or lands divided into plots for preserving water; and the higher parts tar (*tal*), *i.e.*, the land immediately above the reservoir, which is always covered with water in the rainy season and is cultivated as soon as the water is let out. Both these classes of land were usually let for a share of the crop and generally were very carelessly cultivated; while the forming or repairing of the reservoirs having been neglected in many parts, the crops so often failed that much had either been altogether neglected or had been allowed to run waste. In those parts in which the reservoirs were neglected, the villages stood at great distances, and the ground, except in their immediate vicinity, whether high or low, was only cultivated occasionally and with poor crops of pulse or linseed that did not require watering. Such a failure to keep up the embankments must even in his time have been very marked, as elsewhere in describing rice as the principal crop of the district, he remarks that the neglect of some zamindars in repairing the reservoirs on their estates had diminished the extent of rice cultivation and very much reduced the produce of that grain.

Private canals (*pains*).

The statistics of the survey show a large area as irrigated from private canals; but they include, among private canals, many village distributaries of the Government canals. Private canals are comparatively unimportant in Shahabad, except in the Bhabhua subdivision, where they irrigate 18,000 acres, and in the Sasaram thana between the Kaimur Hills and the Son. The *pains* in Shahabad are not elaborate works as in Patna or Gaya, but short, serving one or two villages only.

Wells

84,600 acres are irrigated from wells, which are used largely for sugarcane; wheat and other cold-weather crops. The methods of drawing and distributing the water are those common to the whole of Bihar, and here, as elsewhere, the most usual lifting contrivance is the *latha* or lever. This consists of an upright post which serves as a fulcrum on which a beam works; at one end it is weighted with a log, stone, or mass of dried mud, and at the other is a rope with a bucket attached, which, when not in use, rests above the well. When water is required, the cultivator pulls down the rope till the bucket is immersed; as soon as the tension is relaxed, the weight attached to the lever raises the bucket; the water is then emptied and led by narrow channels into the fields. Irrigation by means of the *mot* (leather bucket) is rarer. When this method is employed,

water is raised by a large leather bucket secured to a rope, which passes over a rude wooden pulley supported by a forked post, and is fastened to the yoke of a pair of bullocks. These supply the motive power, for as soon as the bucket has been filled, they descend an inclined plane, varying in length with the depth of the well, and thus bring it to the surface. One man is required to look after the bullocks, and another is stationed on the well to let down the *mot* and empty it when it comes to the surface.

Two other contrivances for raising water may also be mentioned here, the *don* and the *sair*. The *don* is a boat-shaped wooden scoop, attached at one end to a lever which has its fulcrum a little to the side, the lever being weighted at the other extremity with mud. This machine is used for lifting water either from the reservoirs (*ahars*) which are so numerous in the district or from a lower to a higher channel, where water is plentiful and the elevation small. The *sair* is used when the quantity of water remaining is small; it is a triangular basket made of bamboo with the edges raised on two sides; cords are attached to each angle, which are held by two men. These men swing the basket backwards and then bring it sharply down into the water, carrying the swing on until the basket reaches the level of the higher water-channel by which the field is to be irrigated.

SON CANALS.

The sources of artificial irrigation just mentioned are, however, of minor importance as compared with the Son Canal system, which has by far the greatest value as a factor making for the prevention of famine and the maintenance of continued prosperity among a people so dependent on agriculture and so vitally affected by the vicissitudes of the seasons.

The idea of constructing works which would irrigate the districts bordering on the Son originated in 1853 with the late Colonel C. H. Dickens, who recommended to Government the construction of a series of reservoirs along the foot of the hills to catch the surface drainage and of canals to lead it over the plains country for use during the dry months. Subsequently, as the result of further investigation, he was convinced that the Son should be the source of supply and that the reservoir scheme was of secondary importance; and the subject was under discussion for several years, the preparation of detailed surveys and estimates being seriously interfered with by the Mutiny. Finally, the Government of India decided that the execution of the project should be left

to private enterprise, and it was offered to, and accepted by, the East India Irrigation and Canal Company which had already undertaken the Orissa and Midnapore canal works. In 1868, however, the interest of the Company was bought by Government for ten and a half lakhs of rupees; and the work of construction was commenced in the following year. Sufficient progress had been made in 1873 to allow of water being supplied, through cuts in the banks of the Arrah canal, to relieve the drought of that year; the canals were completed a few years later, and from the year 1876-77 water was supplied on payment of rates in a regular manner. They carry a maximum volume of 6,700 cubic feet per second, and about 75 per cent. of the irrigation lies in Shahabad, 11 per cent. in Gaya, and 14 per cent. in the Patna district.

Canal system.

The system derives its supply from an anicut across the Son at Dehri, and the general plan of the works comprises a Main Western canal, branching off from it on the left bank, and a Main Eastern canal branching off on the right. The anicut or weir, which is 12,469 feet long, consists of a mass of rubble stone laid to a uniform slope and stiffened by walls of masonry founded on shallow wells. Twenty scouring sluices are provided at either flank; and these are fitted with gates which can be opened or closed at any state of the river other than high flood. By means of these gates the level of the water in the pool above the weir can be kept at the height required to feed the canals. The total cost of the anicut, which was begun in 1869 and finished in 1875, amounted to about fifteen lakhs of rupees.

The total length of the main canals is 209 miles, of the branch canals 149 miles, and of the distributaries 1,235 miles; and in Shahabad there are 123 miles of navigable canals, 149 miles of canals used for irrigation and 897 miles of distributaries. The area provided with distributaries in this district is 1,105 square miles, the gross area commanded (1,397 square miles) being contained in a triangle having Dehri for its apex, the East Indian Railway from Koelwar to Chausa for its base, and the river Son and Panjraon branch canal for its sides. The Main Western canal supplies the Arrah, the Buxar and Chausa canals, which all branch off within the first twelve miles, and is continued for a total distance of twenty-two miles, as far as the Grand Trunk Road, two miles beyond Sasaram. Its prolongation for a further distance of fifty miles to the frontier of the district, towards

Mirzapur, was commenced as a relief work during the scarcity of 1874-75, but was never completed, as sufficient water was not available for the extension. The chief engineering work is the syphon-aqueduct of twenty-five arches, by which the Kao, a formidable hill torrent, is carried under the canal. The Arrah canal branches off from the Main Western canal at the fifth mile, and follows the course of the Son for thirty miles, when it strikes northwards, running on a natural ridge past the town of Arrah, and finally after a total course of sixty miles it falls into the Gangi Nadi, a local stream flowing into the Ganges. It is designed for navigation as well as irrigation, but owing to shoals at the point of junction with the main stream of the Ganges, navigation along the Gangi Nadi is only possible during the cold season. To overcome the total fall of 180 feet, thirteen locks were constructed, one of which has since been abandoned. Besides four principal distributaries, its main offshoots are the Bihia canal, thirty-one miles long, and the Dumraon canal, forty miles long. The Buxar canal, which is also intended for navigation, leaves the Main Western canal at its twelfth mile, and communicates with the Ganges at Buxar, after a course of forty-five miles; its main branch, known as the Chausa canal, has a length of forty miles. The total fall is 159 feet, which is overcome by twelve locks.

When the construction of the canals was in progress, **Canal revenue.** sanguine hopes of the revenue they would yield were entertained, but the event proved the fallacy of these early forecasts. In 1875 a yearly irrigated area of 1,043,680 acres was anticipated, and it was estimated that the net profits would amount to Rs. 26,40,530 and yield a return equal to 8·3 per cent. on the capital outlay. It was expected that there would be a large return from navigation receipts; and a considerable sum (estimated at Rs. 66,85,606 or one-quarter of the whole capital outlay) was sacrificed in making the canals first class navigation lines. These hopes were falsified; the supply of water from the Son proved smaller than was anticipated, the maximum area ever irrigated being 619,033 acres (in 1920-21); in the five preceding years the average was 533,193 acres, and in 1911-12 the irrigated area was only 449,541 acres. The receipts from tolls have equally failed to realise the expectations originally entertained; and they have been still further reduced since 1900 in consequence of the construction of the East Indian Railway line in the south of the district. During the

four years previous to the opening of that line, the navigation receipts averaged Rs. 87,600; but they fell to Rs. 36,500 in 1901, and the average annual receipts during the last five years were Rs. 23,900. The result has been that for many years the canals were unremunerative; and it is only during recent years that the return on the capital expenditure has exceeded 4 per cent. By the end of 1921-22 the total capital outlay amounted to Rs. 2,68,98,109, while the net revenue for the year was Rs. 15,37,513, yielding a return of 5¾ per cent.

Effects of canal irrigation.

Even though there was for many years a recurring loss on the canals, it has been compensated for by the great benefits which they have conferred on the tract which they serve. They have afforded it absolute protection against famine; they have increased the profits of cultivation; and they have enlarged the material resources of the community. Even if only their value as protective works and the insurance they afford against famine are considered, their construction has been fully justified. The catchment areas of most *ahars* are small, seldom extending far beyond the village boundary, and, as they depend largely for their utility on the rainfall, the supply is uncertain and very often insufficient. The constant and ample supply of canal water available from the end of June to October presents, therefore, advantages which cannot well be overrated, especially as the private reservoirs are liable to fail just when they are most needed, in the beginning or end of the season. The result is that when rainfall is deficient or ill-distributed, the raiyats are dependent on the water furnished by the canals, from which they can rely on obtaining enough to save their crops.

Protection from famine.

Notwithstanding occasional years of scarcity and consequent distress, there is no record of any famine having ever occurred along the tract of country watered by the canals; and in spite of the fact that the area irrigable has been found to be much less than was originally contemplated, it is still sufficient in years of deficient rainfall to supplement, to a large extent, the failure of the crops in those portions of the district which the canals do not touch. Their great value in this respect has been strikingly demonstrated on several occasions. During the famine of 1873-74, even though the canals were not completed, the water which was supplied gratuitously from them saved a large portion of the crops. In 1877, a year of scanty rainfall, the prospects were so gloomy that, with a view simply to the production of more food, it was decided,

at a certain sacrifice of revenue, to reduce the water-rate for the rice crop from Rs. 2-8 to Re. 1 an acre; and this measure led to a considerable demand for water, and the irrigated *kharif* rice proved a bumper crop. In 1888-89, distress and scarcity would have been the inevitable result of the total failure of the rains in September and October but for these irrigation works; all the *ahars*, except those with a large catchment area, dried up; the rice crop watered from them yielded an outturn of only a quarter of that given by the crops on canal irrigated lands; and the area irrigated from the canals was only circumscribed by the supply available. Again, in the famine of 1896-97, the portion of the district served by the canals was entirely protected by the network of distributaries and village channels and remained immune from famine, when it attacked a large area which had not the benefit of this system of irrigation.

Canal administration. The whole system is under the control of a Superintending Engineer, who is assisted by two Executive Engineers in charge of Divisions. The latter are responsible for the maintenance of the canals, the conduct of irrigation operations and assessments, and a separate establishment is entertained for the collection of the revenue. For this purpose, there is a revenue division in charge of a special Deputy Collector, who sees to the collection of water-rates under the orders of the Superintending Engineer. The irrigated area under long leases is divided into blocks, the lease of all the lands in each block being arranged so as to lapse in the same year; and in fixing the period of the leases efforts are made to see that leases for an equal area expire each year. Applications for water are made by the cultivators on a prescribed form, the year being divided into three seasons, hot weather, *kharif* and *rabi*. A date is fixed for each season, and the lease or permit granted for that season is only in force for that particular period. Besides these season leases, there are long-term leases, or leases for a period of ten years, which provide for the supply of water during the *kharif* and *rabi* seasons only and are granted at a reduced rate. These long-term leases are only granted for compact blocks defined by well-marked boundaries of such a nature that the leased lands can be clearly distinguished from the adjoining unleased lands, and also so situated that unleased lands will not be ordinarily irrigated by water supplied for the land included in the block. These boundaries are mentioned in the application for the lease, on

receipt of which a special report is submitted to the Subdivisional Canal Officer. If the lease is likely to be approved, he issues orders for the block to be measured, and a detailed *khasra*, or measurement of each cultivator's holding, is then made. The lease and the *khationi* or demand statement are finally approved by the Divisional Canal Officer who issues the permit, but before this can be done, the majority of the cultivators who have fields within the block must sign their names against the areas which have been measured and which will be assessed in the block. Fields which cannot be ordinarily irrigated, or for which canal water is not ordinarily required, can be excluded from the block, such fields being duly noted in the *khasra* or measurement paper. In these long-term leases water-rates are charged for the area measured and accepted by the majority of the cultivators, whether water is required or not; and the channel by which the area is irrigated must be registered as well as the name of its owner. In *rabi* and hot-weather leases water is supplied on application, and water-rates are levied on the actual areas irrigated, and not necessarily on those specified in the application. In order to assist the Canal Department in regulating and distributing water among the cultivators named in the leases, and in collecting water-rates, influential men of the village are appointed, in consultation with the cultivators concerned, to act as *lambardars* or headmen. Their duty is to assist in measurements, to give in the names of the cultivators of the different holdings, to see that water is properly distributed over the leased area, and to help generally in the collection of water-rates. For these duties they are paid a commission of Re. 1-9-0 (1·56) per cent. on all assessments.

Water-rates.

There are five rates charged for the water supplied, *viz.*, (1) *rabi* season leases from the 26th of October to the 25th of March at Rs. 3-8-0 an acre; (2) hot-weather leases from the 26th of March to the 24th of June at Rs. 7-8-0 an acre; (3) leases during the same period at Rs. 2-8-0 for each watering: (4) *kharif* season leases between the 25th of June and the 25th of October at Rs. 5 an acre; (5) ten years' leases for block areas for any kind of crop between the 25th of June and the 25th of March in the next year at Rs. 4-8-0 an acre. When the long lease system was inaugurated, it was calculated that water would be given for 50 per cent. of the whole area of a village; and this portion was marked off into one or more well defined blocks, for the irrigation of which

a charge was made at a reduced rate. The cultivator is supplied with water enough for his own block, but he may not use it beyond these limits; and it is, therefore, laid down that there must be a well defined village channel to conduct the water from the distributary, and that it is not to be allowed to escape to an *ahar*. At first, when the canals were opened, water was allowed to fill up the *ahars* and to be drawn thence on to the fields, but as soon as water-rates were claimed, the raiyats maintained that they had used only rain and not canal water; and as their allegation could not be disproved, it was found necessary to discontinue the practice of filling *ahars*. Of all these leases the most popular are the long leases, which are given only for the areas for which protection can be assured even in the driest years. The rates for this class of lease were originally fixed at a low figure, owing to the backwardness of the cultivators in resorting to canal irrigation and to the fact that the use of canal water is not indispensable in years of ordinary rainfall; the holders of these leases have preferential claims to water during periods of high demand such as occur in dry seasons; and, as the cultivators have been quick to recognize the advantages of the system, the area under long leases has steadily expanded, until at the present day 61 per cent. of the whole irrigated area receives water on long lease, and the demand for such leases cannot be fully met.

The Karamnasa scheme.

This sketch of the irrigation system in Shahabad would be incomplete without a reference to the proposal to extend irrigation works to the Bhabhua subdivision. This subdivision, like a part of Sasaram, is beyond the reach of the Son waters; though 88,500 acres are irrigated from private works, it is still much exposed to drought; and the barrenness of the fields is all the more striking from its contrast to the fertile plains in the neighbourhood. The idea of utilizing the waters of the Karamnasa to irrigate this area is no recent one, and more than a century ago the Collector of the district suggested the construction of sluices with canals leading into the interior. In 1870 the Chief Engineer of Bengal left it on record that there was a magnificent site for a large reservoir; and subsequently the Indian Irrigation Commission of 1901-03 urged the importance of conducting a survey of the upper portion of its course where it passes through the hills, though they could not admit that the liability of the subdivision to famine was so great as to justify a large unremunerative

outlay. It was ultimately proposed that the weir should be constructed in that part of the Karamnasa which lies within the United Provinces, and that five hundred cusecs of water should be made available for irrigating the tract of country in the Bhabhua subdivision; but the idea of constructing the weir has been given up by the Government of the United Provinces, and therefore the project has been abandoned. Investigations and surveys are now in progress with a view to the construction of reservoirs at suitable sites for conserving the water in the Shuara and Kora valleys.

CHAPTER VII.

NATURAL CALAMITIES.

Floods.

THE low strip of country bordering on the Ganges is liable to inundation every year as the river rises; but it is from the Son that the most destructive floods come, particularly when its waters are forced back over the adjoining country by a simultaneous rise in the Ganges which checks the natural outlet. The most serious of such floods occurred in 1848, 1864, 1876, 1884, 1888, 1892, 1901, 1906, 1913, 1916, 1917 and 1923. The worst flood of recent years before that of 1923 was that of September in 1901, when the Son at Koilwar rose in two days from 9 to 22 feet, and the canal bank was breached in several places, with the result that some small hamlets on the outskirts of Arrah were destroyed, while the whole country west of the Son was a sheet of water, in some places seventeen miles broad. No loss of human life occurred, and the loss of cattle was small, but over 7,000 houses were destroyed by the flood.

Floods of 1915 and 1917.

There were exceptionally heavy floods in August and September of 1916, affecting the area north of the Koilwar-Buxar road, and the country adjoining the lower reaches of the Son. In 1916, when the gauge reading at Buxar rose to 33 feet 10 inches, an area of over 250 square miles was flooded; thirty head of cattle were drowned, and about two thousand mud-walled houses were destroyed, but no human life was lost. In 1917, two lives were lost, and 217 houses were destroyed by the flood in the same area. In each year the flooded Son was pent up and forced back over the neighbouring country by the great wall of water which came down in the Ganges flood, and all the lowlying parts of Arrah town were inundated. In each year relief measures were promptly undertaken by the Collector and the District Board; and the Maharaja Bahadur of Dumraon was prompt and energetic in instituting measures for the relief of his tenantry as soon as the flood threatened to become serious.

The most destructive flood of recent years occurred in August of 1923, caused as usual by a simultaneous rise of the Son and the Ganges. The normal level of the Son at Dehri is 326 feet above the sea; on this occasion it rose to 343·90 feet, 1·20 feet higher than the highest level hitherto recorded at Dehri (in 1906). On the afternoon of the 18th of August the Superintending Engineer reported that a flood of extraordinary height was coming down the Son; and warnings were immediately sent to the thanas at Arrah, Barhara, Sandes, Sahar and Nasriganj; but the warning appears to have occasioned little alarm, as the inhabitants of this area are accustomed to slight floods of the Son. In the early morning of the 19th of August the water began to come into Arrah town, working its way round the canal bank to the north; but very soon the flood breached the bank at several places, with the result that water came direct into the town. By five o'clock on the morning of the 19th the water had topped the canal bank, and the whole of the country south of the railway line was one sheet of water in which it was not possible to distinguish the line of the canal. By this time the railway line had been breached for a distance of about three miles between Arrah and Kulhuria, and some smaller breaches had been made west of Arrah.

The water continued to rise until 1 A.M. on the 21st, after which it began slowly to subside. It had flooded some of the streets of Arrah town to a height of six feet, and nearly one-third of the houses in the town were destroyed, including the house of the Executive Engineer. The following statement shows the effect of this inundation in the area chiefly affected :—

Local area.	Number of houses in the area.	Houses destroyed.	Crops destroyed.		Human lives lost.	Loss of cattle.
			Bhadai bighas.	Paddy bighas.		
Arrah Municipality ...	8,755	2,869	...	...	3	31
Arrah Mufassal	16,595	7,299	18,944	14,050	8	413
Barahra	12,189	4,456	8,232	15	...	714
Sandes	9,333	2,654	15,635	4,374	15	574
Sahar	3,146	1,252	386	241	1	47
Total ...	50,018	18,530	43,197	18,680	27	1,779

In addition to the damage described above, a certain amount of damage was done in the Nasriganj and Rohtas thanas, but in that area it was confined to a small strip by the bank of the river. Outside Arrah town the total area affected was about 260 square miles. In Sahar thana the damage extended only to two or three miles inland, owing to the protection afforded by the Koilwar distributary, since it was only through the breaches made in the bank of this distributary that the water was able to make its way northward and westward. Leaving aside Sahar thana, the area affected may be described as a triangle, the apex of which was the breach in the Son bank at Turkaul north of Sandes, while the eastern side of the triangle was the river Son, and the western side was a line running north-west from the Turkaul breach and crossing the East Indian Railway line five miles west of Arrah, the base of the triangle being the river Ganges.

Government made a gift of Rs. 10,000 to the Arrah Municipality to enable them to put in order the town water-supply, and a grant of Rs. 35,000 to be expended in issuing loans for the rebuilding of houses. Government also placed at the disposal of the Collector the sum of Rs. 65,000 to be spent on gratuitous relief, and six lakhs of rupees to be issued in takkavi loans. In addition to this a Relief Committee, primarily non-official, was at once formed, which spent considerable sums in the grant of gratuitous relief to the more indigent, in the supply of fodder for cattle, of gifts of blankets to the poor, and in the supply of mat-shelters to families of lower castes which had lost their houses. The Committee was still occupied in relief work when this Gazetteer went to Press.

FAMINES.

Droughts arising from deficient rainfall were frequent in former years before the present extensive system of irrigation had been introduced and the means of communication improved. Four times in the decade preceding the completion of the canals—in 1864, 1865, 1866 and 1869—droughts seriously affected the general harvest and twice culminated in scarcity, while the bad state of communications in the interior aggravated the local distress.

Famine of 1866.

The first of these was the famine of 1866, which, coming as it did after the resources of the poorer classes had been exhausted by bad harvests in the two previous years, caused considerable loss of life. With the exception of the strip of

country lying between the line of railway and the river Ganges, which is subject to inundation and retains sufficient moisture for the growth of spring crops, and of an area of about 750 square miles in the south, which receives the drainage of the Kaimur hills, the district generally suffered in both these years from insufficient rainfall; and in *parganas* Chausa, Piru, Chainpur, Nanaur and Panwar the rice crop on which the country mainly depends failed to the extent of from five-eighths to three-fourths of the outturn of an average season. The failure of the crops in 1864 led to the rapid exhaustion of local stores of grain; and towards the end of 1865, the district, which in ordinary years exports to a considerable extent, was mainly dependent on imported grain for the support of its population. The almost complete failure of the rice crop in 1865, therefore, immediately caused very general and severe distress: the price of all cereals rose to more than double the rates prevailing at the corresponding period in 1863; whilst fourfold the customary rates were demanded for barley, peas and gram, which are much consumed by the poorest classes. No special relief measures were commenced, however, till the beginning of June 1866, when employment was given to the distressed labouring classes in the repair of roads in the subdivisions of Sasaram and Bhabhua; and in July relief committees were opened at the headquarters stations and at six other places. The average daily number of persons relieved when the distress was greatest amounted in August to 2,480, and in September to 2,979, while the average number of persons employed in road repairs was 868 in the former and 1,662 in the latter month. Government relief measures were supplemented by private liberality; but the number of deaths from starvation, as reported by the police, amounted to 3,161, and this figure is believed to be far below the actual number. There can be little doubt but that relief was inadequate and too long delayed. The people suffering the greatest distress were spread over an area of upwards of a thousand square miles; to relieve these, only seven centres were established, exclusive of those at Arrah, Bibiganj and Buxar, which were too distant to apply local relief to the famine tract; and the pauper population had been reduced to the extremity of striving to support life on roots, leaves and grass before any measures were adopted for their succour. The highest price of rice during this famine is reported to have been nine seers for the rupee.

The scarcity of 1869, following as it did a succession of bad years, also caused much distress in Shahabad, and was aggravated by the badness of the roads. Relief measures had to be organized, the able-bodied being employed on the roads, while the old and infirm were formed into beggar squads, who were paid daily for such light work as their infirmities enabled them to perform. Scarcity of 1869.

The next famine from which the district suffered occurred after an interval of only five years, during which the people had had little time to recover from the previous scarcity. The year 1873 was the last of a series of three years which were marked by abnormal rainfall and generally unusual weather. The year 1871 was unusually wet; the following year was equally dry; while in 1873 the rainfall was deficient: the registered fall at Arrah in these three years being 62·43, 34·64 and 32·95 inches, respectively. Notwithstanding the abnormal character of the weather in 1871 and in 1872, the crops in those years were good. In 1871 the heavy and early rains so retarded the transplantation of rice that at one time there were grave apprenhensions regarding the outturn of the crops; but these forebodings were later on replaced by more sanguine expectations, which were eventually realized. In 1872 the rainfall, though deficient, was so seasonably distributed that there resulted a good *bhadoi* crop, and a fair winter rice and *rabi* crop. In fact, the condition of the district in the summer of 1873 was much as usual, and it entered unweighted into the struggle which ensued. The summer and autumn rains of 1873 were deficient by 14½ inches, and this deficient fall, unlike the almost equally short fall in the preceding year, was most unfavourably distributed. The rains commenced late, were concentrated in July and August, and ceased altogether early in September at that most important period of the year when the rice-plant shooting into ear requires abundant moisture to fill out and develop the grain. The early rice crop of 1873 turned out to be only one-fourth of an average crop, while one-eighth of the winter rice crop alone was saved. The anxiety and suspense which affected the public mind in the closing days of 1873 and the commencement of 1874 were naturally reflected in the condition of trade. The disastrous season of 1865-66 was within the vivid recollection of most people; and the remembrance of it, amid circumstances of season even more disastrous, had a marked effect on prices, Famine of 1874.

and especially on the price of rice, which in February 1874 ranged higher than it did at the corresponding period of 1866. The energy displayed by private enterprise was marvellous. The railway poured grain into the district from the North-West Provinces and the Punjab. In the months of January and February, Shahabad received 2,866,766 maunds, or 102,305 tons, of food-grain, exclusive of 3,332 tons consigned by Government; but much of this was despatched across the river to Saran, and some found its way into Gaya district. From the unfinished channels of the Son Canals 159,000 acres of land in this district and in Gaya were irrigated, and seventy thousand tons of winter and spring grain, which would otherwise probably have perished, were saved. In the existence of these works Shahabad possessed an advantage over all other distressed districts, except Saran, as they afforded organized labour at a time when organized labour was not procurable elsewhere, and in this way had a very beneficial effect on the condition of the district. But in spite of these advantages, prices continued to rise till June, when common rice stood at ten seers to the rupee. It would indeed have gone very much higher but that in March and April an abundant harvest of wheat and pulses was reaped. These crops, which from the commencement promised more favourably in Shahabad than elsewhere in the Patna Division, were above the average in the Arrah and Buxar subdivisions, where the crops on the riverside lands were particularly good; and in other parts they yielded a good outturn. Prices, however, remained throughout the year from fifty to eighty per cent. over normal rates—a state of things necessitating the continuance of relief works. As far as charitable relief, however, was concerned, Government found that, having due regard to the claims of the aged and indigent, to whom such exceptional prices meant the denial of private charity, it could transfer 1,390 tons of the original consignment for Shahabad to other more distressed districts.

During the famine 287 tons of rice were distributed in charitable relief; 545 tons were paid as wages of labour; 158 tons were advanced as loans; and 3,153 tons were sold for cash. Besides this, Rs. 33,566 was distributed in charitable relief, Rs. 17,437 was advanced on loan and Rs. 1,89,373 paid away as wages. In January 2,227 labourers were employed daily on relief works, 6,290 in April, 10,074 in May, 4,407 in

July and 2,996 in September, when this form of relief was closed. In the beginning of May charitable relief began to be given freely, 2,361 persons being daily supplied with food at that period and 3,166 towards the end of that month. The number fell to 647 in the middle of June, but rose to 2,965 in the middle of July and continued near this high average till the end of September, after which month little relief of this kind was called for. The autumn and winter crops in 1874 yielded full harvests, though an extraordinary flood of the Durgauti river burst through the Grand Trunk Road and did considerable damage. The spring crop of 1875 was above the average and the effects of the scarcity soon disappeared.

Owing to the protection afforded by the irrigation works, a long interval ensued before Shahabad again felt the stress of famine; and it was not till 1896-97 that any portion of the district again suffered from a calamity of this nature. The rainfall in the preceding year was very deficient, especially in the Sasaram and Bhabhua subdivisions, and the whole district received only 71·4 per cent. of the normal fall. A very large tract, however, was served by irrigation from the Son Canals, and the greater part of the Sasaram subdivision, the south of the Buxar, and much of the sadr subdivision were thus protected; while in the high lands to the north, on which *rabi* grows, the failure of the rains was not wholly disastrous as they received their full share of the winter showers. In the event, the *bhadoi* for the whole district was estimated at seven annas, the *aghani* at four annas, and the *rabi* at eleven annas of the normal crop, the total outturn being less than half of an ordinary year. Prices here, as elsewhere, ruled very high, but considerable stocks were held by the cultivators; and eventually no part was really distressed except the Bhabhua subdivision and the southern portion of the Sasaram subdivision, an area comprising 1,632 square miles and containing a population of 382,000 souls. Famine of 1896-97

This tract consists of two sharply defined portions—the hills and the plains. The whole of the south of the Bhabhua subdivision and much of the southern portion of Sasaram is occupied by the Kaimur range with an area of seven hundred square miles and a population of twenty thousand. Here the crops are poor and precarious, and depend greatly on the rains, for with the exception of a few village wells and still fewer tanks there is no provision for a water supply. Food-supplies

are brought up from the plains through difficult passes, which, always impassable for wheeled traffic, become closed even to pack-bullocks when the monsoon once sets in. Rice is the principal crop, but the people live from hand to mouth and are accustomed in time of dearth to eke out their subsistence with the products of the jungle; these natural resources stood them in good stead when the rice crops failed, and helped to alleviate the subsequent distress. The remainder of the distressed tract comprised the plains part of the Bhabhua subdivision and the Chenari outpost in Sasaram. Of this, the portion falling north of the Grand Trunk Road, in which *rabi* is mainly cultivated, was not severely affected, but distress was much more acute in the tract lying between that road and the hills. This tract is characterized by very poor soil growing hardly anything but *aghani* rice; there is little or no irrigation; the cultivators are inexpert and impoverished; and the physique of the people is poor and their general condition bad.

In the affected area the harvest of 1895-96 had been poor, and in 1896 the winter rice crop, on which the cultivators mainly depend, had an outturn of only ten annas. This was succeeded by an equally poor *rabi* crop, as there was almost an entire absence of rainfall from October 1895 to June 1896, the fall being only 0·26 inch; and the people could only hope to recover if the monsoon was up to its usual strength. These hopes were doomed to disappointment; at Bhabhua there were only 18·82 inches as against a normal fall of over 40 inches; the rains practically stopped before the end of August; and the rice crop was a total failure. To add to the distress, the *rabi* harvest of 1896-97 was damaged by caterpillars and was only a six or seven annas crop, though even this poor outturn mitigated the severity of the famine in the Chenari outpost and the country lying north of the Grand Trunk Road.

The rains of 1896-97 began a fortnight late, not commencing till the last week of June; heavy rain followed early in July, and then two long periods of drought ensued, of about a month each. As day after day passed in July and early August with brilliant sunshine and no sign of rain, apprehension began to be felt, for the *bhadoi* was withering, the seed-beds of rice were drying up, and large tracts of rice land were still unplanted, while the broadcast rice was

dying. By the middle of August, prices, though still low, had risen a couple of seers, and the absence of employment on agricultural operations was beginning to make its effects felt. Soon afterwards, however, there was a good burst of rain, and though the deficiency was not made up, the outlook grew brighter and by the end of the month prices were falling again, and the fear of immediate distress had disappeared. But at this time the second of the long periods of drought had already commenced, marked by hot weather with dry west winds, and hardly any rain fell anywhere till the middle of September: these circumstances completely altered once more the aspect of affairs, and it became apparent that nothing but good rain in the *Hathiya* asterism (September 28th to October 8th) could save the rice and give sufficient moisture for the *rabi*.

These hopes proved delusive; the *Hathiya* passed away without a drop of rain, the hot west winds continued, and a failure of the rice was assured. At the same time agents were buying grain largely in all the big markets, with the object of exporting it to the westward, those who held stocks began to close their sales, and emigration was unusually large. In these circumstances, prices rose with a bound, and in the first few days of October there was great excitement and fear of grain riots, similar to those which had actually occurred shortly before this time in other parts of India. There was much apprehension in Arrah, where the dealers suspended retail sales, but no overt acts of rioting were committed, and after this violent rise prices steadied down. A fortnight later, when still no rain had fallen, there could be no doubt that the rice crop was doomed; the price of rice had risen to nine seers to the rupee; and by this time the south of the district was seriously affected. In the Bhabhua subdivision there was a sudden increase of crime, several cases having occurred in which the houses of the well-to-do people in a village were broken into and the grain stores carried off; and at the end of the month it was decided to open relief works.

Rice remained at famine prices, being sold during the greater part of the famine at eight seers and falling from June to August in 1897 as low as seven seers to the rupee: and it was not found possible to close the relief works till July of 1897. During this period altogether 560,031 adult males were employed on piece-work and 175,105 on a daily wage, Rs. 74,000 being paid as wages. These works were

supplemented by gratuitous relief on a large scale ; weekly grain doles were given from the second week of January 1897 till the 25th of September ; poor-houses and kitchens were opened; and, in all, 4,147,626 * persons obtained gratuitous relief, the percentage of men, women and children being 19·2, 46·5 and 34·3 respectively, and the amount expended being Rs. 1,96,000. The daily average of persons in receipt of this form of relief was no less than 4·47 per cent. of the population in the affected area, and the largest number gratuitously relieved at any one time amounted to 6·4 per cent. of the people. This high percentage was due to several causes; the system of gratuitous relief and the relief works were not thoroughly organized till February 1897, and the people were consequently in poor condition; large numbers of the bread-winners had left their homes; and finally the inhabitants of the country most severely affected are of poor physique, and among the men lameness and paralysis are very common. The total cost of the famine operations was Rs. 3.36,000, of which Rs. 30,000 was met from District funds, and besides this the sum of Rs. 25,000, contributed by the Bengal Provincial Committee of the India Famine Relief Fund, was spent in relieving distressed *pardanashin* ladies. No deaths occurred from starvation, but owing to the ravages of cholera and small-pox and to the greater prevalence of fever in the autumn of 1897, the mortality in the distressed area was nearly 3½ per mille greater than in the whole district.

The twentieth century.

The history of Shahabad in the twentieth century has hitherto happily been free from any such disasters. The failure of *Hathiya* rains in 1908 seriously affected the winter rice crop in those portions of the district which are not irrigated from the Son Canals; and the early drying of the ground also unfavourably affected the *rabi* cultivation; but there was only local scarcity which was relieved by the grant of *takkavi* loans. The unirrigated tracts again suffered in 1914 from the absence of rain from September to the end of the year. In 1918 there was an early cessation of the monsoon rains, which again affected these vulnerable areas; causing a partial failure of the winter rice crop in the Bhabhua subdivision. The *rabi* crops were affected by the drought in the beginning of the season; but the mischief

* Counting each person once daily, so that one man receiving relief for fifty days is represented in the return as fifty persons relieved.

was largely repaired by rain in January of 1919. There was serious scarcity in Bhabhua, necessitating expenditure by the District Board of over thirty-two thousand rupees on relief works; but the scarcity was not so serious as to amount to famine. The schemes which have been considered for the permanent protection of this area have been mentioned in Chapter VI. The problem is difficult; it has not been rendered easier by the fact that much of the water of the Karamnasa in its upper reaches has now been diverted for irrigation purposes in another province; but so long as this area is unprotected it will be liable to suffer whenever there is an early cessation of the monsoon rains, thereby presenting a great contrast to the security enjoyed by the rest of the district.

CHAPTER VIII.

RENTS, WAGES AND PRICES.

CASH RENTS.

THE following table shows the area occupied by raiyats at fixed rates and occupancy raiyats in each thana, and the average rate of rent paid by each class of tenant. Mr. Hubback calculates that the ordinary rent of an occupancy raiyat in Shahabad amounts to sixteen per cent. of the gross produce.*

Thana.	Raiyats at fixed rent.		Settled and occupancy raiyats.	
	Area held.	Average rent. per acre.	Area held.	Average rent per acre.
	Acres.	Rs. a. p.	Acres.	Rs. a. p.
Buxar	39,107	3 4 6	94,618	3 8 11
Dumraon	60,565	3 8 3	96,087	3 14 6
Arrah	84,981	4 14 6	81,889	4 10 3
Piro	3,918	5 0 2	150,730	5 2 5
Shahpur	47,621	4 1 9	67,905	4 12 3
Bikramganj	3,288	3 5 0	174,388	3 15 4
Karghar	2,482	2 9 6	109,804	3 9 1
Sasaram	212	2 3 9	122,433	3 8 10
Dehri	717	4 15 3	54,544	4 5 0
Bhabhua	1,988	2 12 6	139,647	3 15 9
Mohania	5,334	3 0 2	144,431	3 3 2

High rates of rent paid by fixed rent raiyats.

As Mr. Hubback has observed, the most striking feature of the statistics of rent paid by various classes of tenants is the fact that raiyats at fixed rates pay practically as high a rate of rent as occupancy raiyats. The explanation is to be found in the fact that 93 per cent. of the total land held by raiyats at fixed rates is in the fertile rabi tract which lies between the Ganges and the Koilwar-Benares road. Buchanan in 1812 estimated that land in this region was assessed to rent at the rate of three rupees a bigha, wherein he was probably not far wrong, though he slightly exaggerated the rent paid. These raiyats are apparently the representatives of the khudkasht raiyats of the eighteenth century, paying rent, not at any favoured rate, but at the

* Shahabad Settlement Report, page 114.

old traditional rate at which khudkasht raiyats were entitled to hold during the currency of the Decennial Settlement.

Rents on the Kaimur table-land

Rent in the Kaimur hill tract is assessed, as in many parts of Chota Nagpur, on the amount of rice land cultivated, without reference to the upland (*tanr*) held by the raiyat. The average rent for an acre of rice-land is here Rs. 2/9/5; but if the *tanr* land is included the rent for an acre of cultivated land is something less than a rupee.

PRODUCE RENTS.

Produce rents are chiefly found at the present day in the Sasaram and Bhabhua subdivisions, particularly where arrangements for irrigation are so imperfect that the raiyat cannot safely engage to pay a settled money rent. The prevalence of produce rent systems does not however appear to depend on the existence of indigenous or imperfect means of irrigation, as compared with the Government canals, since we find that 37 per cent. of the area held by settled and occupancy raiyats in Karghar is held on produce rent, whereas the percentage so held in Bhabhua and Mohania is 27 and 29½ respectively. The area held on produce rents in each subdivision is as follows :—

—	Buxar	Sadr.	Sasaram.	Bhabhua.	Shahabad district.
Area held on produce rent (acres).	20,901	35,945	118,673	80,781	256,300
Proportion of such area to whole area held by settled and occupancy raiyats.	10·96	11·81	25·73	28·44	20·69

Danabandi.

The share which the landlord receives is determined either by *danabandi*, or appraisement; or by *batai*, *i.e.*, by the actual division of the crops on the threshing-floor. In the former case, the division of the produce has passed into an estimate of the value of the crop before it is cut, the produce of each field being estimated by appraisers (*salis*) while the crop is standing. Before the landlord's share is determined, a deduction is made from the whole estimated produce, which may be as low as ten per cent., but usually amounts to twenty per cent. of the whole; and all the expenses of harvesting and the customary allowances made to village artisans, menials, etc., are supposed to be paid from this deduction. The landlord's share, which is generally one-half of the balance, is handed over to him after the crop is threshed, either in grain or in cash, and is usually equivalent to

forty per cent. of the value of the gross yield of grain estimated at the current village price at harvest time.

Batai. When, however, either party is dissatisfied with the estimate made by the appraisers, resort is had, even in villages in which the *danabandi* system is usual, to the other method of *batai*, or actual division of the crops. Under this system, the harvesting expenses and village allowances are paid in kind, and a deduction of five or sometimes ten per cent. of the remainder is made in favour of the tenant before the grain is divided. The deductions for harvesting expenses and village allowances vary considerably, but they are usually as follows :—(1) The reapers are allowed to take one out of every twenty *bojhas* (sheaves) off the field; they have the privilege of choosing their own sheaves and of course select the largest; and besides this, each reaper takes one *panja* (half a *bojha*) on the last harvest day for every plough the tenant has. (2) One *panja* per plough is given to each of the following village menials, etc. :—the Chamar, Hajjam, Barhi, Bhat, Halalkor and Brahman priest. (3) One *bojha* per plough is taken off the threshing floor before threshing commences by the Chamar, Hajjam, Lohar and Barhi jointly. (4) One *kachcha* maund in twenty-one is allowed after the grain is threshed and winnowed to those who perform those processes; and (5) two *kachcha paseris* per hundred maunds are given to the priest, and also to the *gorait*, *i.e.*, one-half per cent. in all. Besides this, when the grain is heaped up for division after winnowing, a portion, mixed with the dust of the threshing-floor and the chaff, is left aside for the raiyat. This allowance (*tari-agwar*) represents about five per cent., or sometimes, when the raiyat is influential or of high caste, as much as ten per cent. of the grain.

Taking all three harvests (*aghani*, *bhadoi*, and *rabi*) into consideration, the customary deductions are estimated to amount to 19·56 per cent. of the grain yield, which is as a rule distributed as follows :—

	Per cent.
(*a*) Harvesting expenses	10·72
(*b*) Customary village allowances	4·67
(c) *Tari-agwar* to the raiyat	4·17
	19·56

The landlord's share is calculated on the balance (80·44 per cent. of the yield) and is therefore the same whether it is arrived at by the *danabandi* or *batai* system. The division is usually half and half, but there is no uniformity in this respect, the landlord's share in some villages being four-ninths, and in many seven-sixteenths, while in a few it is only two-fifths.

There is, however, one circumstance which results in the landlord's share being somewhat diminished, *viz.*, the custom by which the ryot gets all the straw and chaff; and consequently what they actually divide is eighty per cent. of the outturn of grain, and not eighty per cent. of the gross yield. When, therefore, the landlord gets one-half, his share represents forty per cent. of the outturn of grain; where it is four-ninths, he gets $35\frac{1}{2}$; where it is seven-sixteenths, the percentage is thirty-five; and where he gets two-fifths, his share represents only thirty-two per cent. of the grain yield.

Working of the *bhaoli* system.

From the preceding account, it will be clear that the *bhaoli* system depends largely on the co-operation of landlords and tenants. For its complete success, it is necessary that the interest of both parties should be identical, that the zamindar should not be an absentee landlord, and that he should conscientiously provide the outlay of capital necessary to keep up or create an adequate water-supply. In practice, however, the landlord often evades his share of the responsibility, and the complicated method of appraisement and division naturally results in much peculation and mutual friction. Endless bickering is the rule and the apportionment of the crop leaves a wide door open to fraud and oppression. Besides this the system is open to the grave objection that it engenders slovenly cultivation. The incentives to industry are not so strong as in the case of land which is assessed to a cash rent, as the tenant receiving only half the produce has only half the usual motives for exertion, and will not devote time and trouble to improving the land. Even in the beginning of the nineteenth century, Buchanan, noticing this feature of the system, observed that the peasant confined his attention to the valuable lands near the village for which he paid a money rent, and "in the intervals of labour" cultivated in a careless manner the lands let to him for a share of the crops. This inefficient style of cultivation is much more marked on third and fourth-rate land than on the better qualities of soil; but even in the latter case the cultivator, knowing that he will not get all the profits of his industry, frequently does not care to turn up and pulverize the soil, apply

manure, irrigate the crop, and generally take that trouble which he would take had he not to share the increased yield with another.

Zabti or *hastobudi* crops.

In Shahabad, as elsewhere in south Bihar, cash rent is paid when certain crops are grown on holdings for which produce rent is ordinarily paid. Cash rent at a certain recognised rate is always thus paid when sugarcane is grown on *bhaoli* land and there is often a similar arrangement for potatoes or other special crops. Here, as in certain parts of the United Provinces, this arrangement has sometimes survived the commutation of produce rent; and the landlord has realised higher rates of cash rent when these special crops were grown.*

Commutation of produce rents.

In Buchanan's time produce rents prevailed all over Shahabad, but since then the greater part of the land has been converted into *nagdi*; and there is a steady tendency to convert produce rents to cash. The process is gradual; and even in the canal irrigated area, many villages are still held entirely on the *bhaoli* tenure while in many more produce rents are paid for large portions of the cultivated area, and especially for rice-growing land. On the whole, however, the change to cash rents is extending steadily as the people realize the difficulties and disadvantages inherent in such a complicated method of rent recovery; the Son canal irrigation system, which affords the raiyat a certain supply of water independent of the zamindar, has done much in this direction; and for the greater part *bhaoli* rents are now paid either for inferior lands or only for those lands in which cultivation depends entirely on the landlord's maintaining irrigation works.

WAGES.

The great rise in prices of recent years has naturally affected wages of labour in the towns. When the first edition of this Gazetteer was published, blacksmiths and carpenters earned four or five annas, and labourers about 2½ annas daily. At the wages census in 1911, it was found that wages of blacksmiths and carpenters had remained stationary, while wages of unskilled labourers and ploughmen had risen to three annas. The Collector reports that the wages of blacksmiths and carpenters are now from twelve annas to one

* The legality of such a custom is open to question in areas governed by the provisions of the Bengal Tenancy Act. On this custom elsewhere, *see* Baden Powell's Land Systems of British India, Vol. I, page 273. Baden Powell speaks of these special crops as *zabti* crops, interpreting the word as meaning sequestered, or set aside.

rupee, while those of unskilled labourers are from eight to nine annas. Ploughmen in the neighbourhood of the towns, and wherever they are not paid in kind, earn eight annas daily; while the rate for a ploughman who supplies plough and bullocks is two rupees.

Outside urban areas wages are usually paid wholly or partly in kind; even the village artisan receives grain for the services which he renders; and the field labourer generally gets the whole of his wage—usually three seers for a man, $2\frac{1}{2}$ for a woman and $1\frac{1}{2}$ for a child—in one or other of the inferior grains such as millets or coarse unhusked rice. This system has the advantage of being unaffected by any rise in the price of food-grains; whatever the fluctuations of the market may be, the labourer's wage remains the same.

PRICES. The following table gives the average prices of staple food crops in Shahabad, published by authority of the Local Government under section 39 of the Bengal Tenancy Act, from 1888 to 1922:—

	Arrah.				Buxar.				Sasaram.				Bhabhua.			
	Wheat.		Rice.		Wheat.		Rice.		Wheat.		Rice.		Wheat.		Rice.	
	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.
1888	15	4	16	3	15	8	16	11	16	2	15	2	15	8	13	5
1889	14	13	14	7	14	12	13	14	15	14	14	8	14	15	12	14
1890	15	12	15	9	15	9	15	1	16	8	15	1	15	13	13	7
1891	14	3	15	0	13	15	14	15	14	7	14	14	13	9	13	1
1892	13	2	11	14	14	4	12	1	13	6	11	8	13	4	10	14
1893	13	2	13	2	13	13	13	10	14	12	13	0	13	13	12	3
1894	13	14	13	3	14	10	14	4	13	12	14	4	13	10	15	0
1895	13	4	14	10	13	13	14	13	13	11	15	12	13	3	14	2
1896	11	4	13	9	11	11	12	13	12	2	13	10	11	10	11	11
1897	9	3	9	0	9	10	9	6	9	14	8	10	9	6	9	0
1898	13	13	13	10	14	7	15	0	14	0	13	12	14	2	12	5
1899	15	14	15	2	15	6	15	7	16	10	16	13	16	9	15	15
1900	11	12	11	9	11	15	12	11	12	6	12	7	11	9	12	1
1901	11	11	11	6	11	14	12	3	12	5	11	4	12	1	10	5
1902	12	11	11	4	13	3	11	14	13	8	12	2	13	10	12	11
1903	14	5	14	1	14	15	14	13	15	4	15	7	15	15	15	12
1904	17	2	14	0	16	13	15	5	16	11	15	0	18	3	15	13
1905	13	15	13	4	13	10	14	0	14	2	14	7	15	4	14	14
1906	10	15	10	7	11	3	10	14	12	1	11	2	12	4	11	13
1907	10	7	9	1	10	7	9	2	10	11	8	13	11	3	9	9
1908	7	14	7	15	7	13	7	12	7	8	7	7	8	0	8	7
1909	9	9	9	11	9	6	9	11	9	9	9	7	9	8	9	12
1910	10	11	12	2	10	10	12	10	11	11	13	4	11	12	12	9
1911	12	5	12	12	13	6	12	15	13	8	12	6	14	15	13	2
1912	12	4	11	13	12	6	12	1	12	5	11	1	13	10	11	14
1913	10	12	9	1	11	0	9	13	11	2	9	1	11	12	9	4
1914	10	1	8	5	9	9	8	11	9	10	8	1	10	3	8	12
1915	7	9	8	8	7	12	8	4	7	12	7	2	7	14	8	5
1916	8	11	8	12	9	9	9	4	9	9	9	3	9	15	10	1
1917	9	9	10	12	9	8	11	11	9	12	11	5	10	8	12	8
1918	7	4	10	2	7	4	10	3	8	0	10	0	8	3	10	4
1919	5	13	5	6	5	13	5	8	5	14	5	14	6	8	5	14
1920	6	3	5	12	6	9	6	7	6	5	5	11	6	12	5	14
1921	6	5	6	12	6	3	7	3	6	3	6	15	6	8	6	11
1922	6	0	6	10	6	5	7	2	6	11	6	9	6	6	7	6

The most striking feature in these lists is the very great rise in prices in the last eight years, during which the normal prices of wheat and rice have been equivalent to what would a few years ago have been regarded as famine prices. It is interesting to compare these prices with those obtaining 140 years ago,* when the finest kind of rice sold at between 31 and 44 seers and paddy at 95 to 129 seers per rupee, while the price of wheat ranged from 55 to 64 seers and of gram from 72 to 104 seers per rupee. The prices of grain have risen enormously during the last hundred years; but on the other hand there has been a very great growth in the income of all classes, and during the last generation the development of communications has had the effect of levelling prices over larger and larger areas. The loss of one or even two crops of the year has therefore a tendency to become less and less felt, as well as the effect of failures in isolated tracts. Up to the end of last century there was only one line of railway running through the two subdivisions of Arrah and Buxar; but since that time communications have been greatly improved by the construction of the Grand Chord Line in the south of the district, the light railway from Arrah to Sasaram which connects these two lines of the East Indian Railway, and the smaller light railway from Dehri to Rohtas. The variation in prices between different parts of the district is accordingly less marked than formerly, when the railway only tapped the north of the district. High prices of food grains should be beneficial to the bulk of the people, who live by cultivation; and the rise in prices has had this effect in the north of the district, where the *guzashtadars* have larger surplus stocks of grain than the cultivators elsewhere; but speaking generally, so large a proportion of the crop which is left, after provision has been made for rent and seed, is required to feed the cultivator's family, that he benefits from the great rise in prices less than would be expected. At the same time, the occupancy raiyat does have a larger surplus from the fact that his rent represents a smaller proportion of his crop because enhancement of rent on the ground of rise in prices does not keep pace with the actual rise. Agricultural labour is ordinarily paid in kind, and so is little affected; but the classes which are unfavourably affected by the rise are the smaller landlords, and all whose incomes are fixed in cash.

* For a list of the prices current in 1781 and 1782, two average years, see *Early English Administration of Bihar*, by J. R. Hand, pp. 61, 62; or *The Revenue Chief of Bihar*, pp. 168 to 171.

Much of what was written in the original edition of this Gazetteer on the material condition of the tenantry has been rendered obsolete by the preparation of the record-of-rights and by the great changes in economic conditions in recent years. Tenants in the smaller estates have now an authentic record of land which they hold, and of the conditions on which they hold it; and they are no longer liable to arbitrary enhancement of rent whenever the estate may be partitioned or when there is a change of the intermediate tenure-holder. Mr. Hubback in his Settlement Report gave elaborate calculations of the economic condition of cultivators in the district, to which the reader who seeks for details may be referred.* General estimates of the value of the crops need qualification and modification at every stage; but broadly speaking, Mr. Hubback found that the average outturn of an acre of land was thirteen maunds of paddy or nine maunds of rabi crops. Cultivators have certainly not suffered by the recent rise in prices; and Mr. Hubback's conclusion may be accepted that in Shahabad raiyats and agricultural labourers are fairly well off in comparison with the same classes in other districts of Bihar, though in Chausa and Chainpur they are less well off than in other parts of the district. MATERIAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE.

There is a general consensus of opinion as to the wide prevalence of indebtedness. The raiyat, though he generally keeps a certain amount of grain in store, is often improvident, and the custom of the country makes heavy expenditure on social ceremonies obligatory. Agriculture like other industries is supported on credit; and there is some truth in Mr. O'Malley's remark that the *mahajan* is as essential to the village as the ploughman. The co-operative credit movement has made a certain amount of progress in the district, where there are now 162 societies, with 3,100 members. There are central co-operative banks at Arrah, Buxar and Sasaram, with a working capital of Rs. 2,76,200. The number of primary agricultural societies is 154, with 2,673 members, associated with a working capital of Rs. 2,64,100. These primary societies have accumulated a small reserve fund of Rs. 7,774; and in 1922, their societies made profit of over Rs. 5,000. The Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies reports that the members are slowly but steadily improving their material condition. Ministerial servants of Co-operative credit.

* *See* the Shahabad Settlement Report (1918), pp. 120 to 128.

Government have societies of their own at Arrah and Sasaram, with 89 and 44 members, and Rs. 3,882 and Rs. 1,790 respectively as working capital. At Garhani there is a successful co-operative store; and at Nokha there is a prosperous co-operative society of shoemakers.

Labourers.

At the bottom of the social scale come the labourers who own no land, grow no crops and depend entirely on the wages of labour. They are an improvident class, but on the whole they are better off than formerly, to judge from the greater number of utensils and ornaments they possess. This improvement of condition may probably be ascribed to the fact that large numbers of labourers migrate year after year at the beginning of the cold season, for temporary employment on roads, tanks and railways, in the harvest field, and in other miscellaneous employments, returning again at the end of the hot weather in time for the agricultural operations which commence with the bursting of the monsoon.

Kamiyas.

Side by side with this class of free labourers, there is a small and diminishing section of the community known as *kamiyas*, whose position until recently was that of serfs. The *kamiya* hired himself, in consideration of a loan of money, to work for the lender till the money should be repaid. He merely obtained food and lodging from his master, and he was not allowed to work for anybody else, so that his chance of being ever able to repay the loan was small. The liability was regarded as descending from father to son; and although sons have often evaded this serfdom thrust upon them by the fathers' death, the evasion has usually been accomplished by flight to Bengal. Bitter has been the grievance of Babhan cultivators when a son of a *kamiya*, having become a Christian and learned from the missionary that he has no legal liability, has renounced the status which his father's employer would thrust upon him; and these grievances have in many cases led to fierce and illegal reprisals. By the Kamiauti Agreements Act of 1920 these contracts are void if the term of labour exceeds one year, if the debt is not to be extinguished in this term, or if fair remuneration is not to be provided for the labour; and its effect will probably be to extinguish this form of serfdom.

Effects of famine.

With a people so dependent on the soil, perhaps the best test of prosperity is afforded when their resources are severely strained by famine; and it is noticeable that in the famine of 1896-97 Shahabad escaped far more lightly than

many other districts in Bihar, and that eventually only a small portion of it turned out to be actually distressed. This comparative immunity is due to the fertility of the northern part of the district, to the increased staying power of the peasantry which has resulted from the vast improvement in communications, and to the protection afforded by the Son Canals. One of the most remarkable features of this famine was the manner in which the poorer classes of townsfolk and the genteel poor managed to weather the storm with little outside assistance, and that too in spite of the fact that with their small fixed incomes this class is one of the first to be affected by the rise of prices The famine also afforded proof of the general resourcefulness of the cultivators and of the fact that a great number of the agricultural population have reserve stocks of grain which enable them to tide over bad times. Though the imports of grain were large, they were insufficient to make up the deficiency between the outturn of that year and that which the population ordinarily require for their support; there were no deaths from starvation; and it follows that the greater part of the balance must have been in the hands of the people themselves and of the local grain-dealers and zamindars. On the other hand, it became apparent that a small proportion of the people are always on the verge of starvation, as the figures for gratuitous relief mounted rapidly as soon as the local organization was complete; the daily average in receipt of this form of relief was no less than 4·47 per cent. of the population of the distressed area; and all of these were found to be in absolute need of relief.

Early accounts.

It is of some interest in this connection to read Buchanan's description of the general poverty prevailing in the beginning of last century. Only three families, of which one was that of the Raja of Bhojpur and another that of his kinsman, the Zamindar of Jagdishpur, lived in the style becoming gentlemen; the huts of the peasants had seldom any window, very few of them had wooden doors, and in many the entrance was always open, as even a hurdle to shut it was considered too expensive a luxury. The free male domestics were usually allowed from eight to sixteen annas a month besides their food and clothes, though in Arrah their wages often rose to two rupees a month; and it was a regular practice to sell slaves, the price of male slaves being fifteen rupees and of women twenty rupees each.

In the neighbourhood of Dumraon, it was the custom for the neighbours to carry any destitute person who was in danger of dying to another village and leave him there; if he survived, the people on whom he was foisted removed him to another village; and, Buchanan goes on to say, the wretch was thus bandied about till he died.

Modern conditions. Conditions have improved wonderfully since that time. It is true that there is still a small section of the people who are practically *ascripti glebae*, that the bulk of the agricultural community can command only two meals a day, and that there is a certain percentage of the poorer classes who in ordinary times can only just make ends meet and who are often pinched for food. On the other hand, there has been a considerable increase in the incomes of the land-holding and cultivating classes, and their standard of comfort and expenditure has risen. The wealthier inhabitants live for the most part in the towns in substantial houses of brick or stone; and even in the villages the majority of the clay houses are tiled. The substantial cultivators have a large stock of clothes for themselves and their families, and even the labourers are not so utterly resourceless as they used to be. The great bulk of the raiyats enjoy a secure tenure which leaves them a fair share of the produce; the cultivators of small holdings have benefited by the general rise in prices; and the class of landless labourers is comparatively small. The northern part of the district contains a substantial and sturdy yeoman tenantry, who have always been tenacious of their ancient rights and customs, and have succeeded in maintaining them. The canals, railways and roads place every part except the hilly tracts in the south within easy reach of the markets, and canal irrigation renders one-third of the population independent of the seasons. Besides this emigration is more active than elsewhere; large numbers of labourers emigrate annually in search of work on the roads, railways and fields in the eastern districts, and many thousands of the adult males are to be found spread over other parts of India in permanent employ. All these persons make remittances to their homes, while those who migrate for a time bring back with them the balance of their savings, and in this way large sums of money are sent and brought into the district every year, and are expended in the support of the families of the labouring classes. In 1896-97 the sum of nearly 23¾ lakhs was paid by money order in the district,

the amount paid per head of the population being greater than in any other district in the Patna Division; the money orders were almost all for sums below Rs. 10, the average being about half that sum; and it may be concluded that a large proportion must have represented remittances sent by emigrants to their homes. Since that time this means of remitting money has grown in popularity; and in 1920-21 the amount paid by money order exceeded 61 lakhs, a fact which may reasonably be taken as an indication of the increased prosperity of the people.

CHAPTER IX.

OCCUPATIONS, MANUFACTURES AND TRADE.

OCCUPATIONS.

As in other districts of Bihar, a large majority of the people are engaged in agricultural pursuits, no less than seventy-five per cent. of the population deriving their livelihood from agriculture or pasture. Half of these are classed as actual workers (as distinct from dependent members of the households concerned); and these actual workers include 9,200 rent-receivers; 688,900 cultivators; and 200,000 field labourers. Eleven per cent. of the population are supported by industries, a smaller proportion than would have been inferred from the figures of the census of 1901. The difference is to be attributed, not to any recent decline in industrial activity, but to more careful classification. Enumerators were formerly apt to enter members of castes such as Barhi or Teli as following the industry appropriate to their caste, though they might really be cultivators.

MANUFACTURES.

As is only natural in a district where the great majority of the people are engaged in agricultural and pastoral pursuits and where the urban population is small, the bulk of the industrial community are employed in supplying the simple needs of a rural people. Thus industries in connection with dress support 48,900 persons, of whom 13,000 are supported by the manufacture of boots and shoes. Again, working in precious metals supports 13,200 persons; but all these industries merely supply local needs. Manufactures in the more common sense of the word are few in number and of little significance. The Bihia sugar-mills have been exported all over the province; and in the lime industry in the south of the district a raw material is prepared for export on a large scale; otherwise scarcely any of the industries produce anything for export, and those few which do are on a small scale.

Sugar-refining.

The manufacture of *gur* and molasses is carried out on a considerable scale by the cultivators who grow sugarcane;

but this can hardly be reckoned as an industry apart from agriculture. The only large refining factory is the turbine mill at Nasriganj.

Paper was at one time made in large quantities at Hariharganj, and in 1872 there were twenty-one manufacturers who produced 1,293 reams of ten different qualities. The industry is now almost extinct; it has been unable to compete with the machine-made paper of Serampore, and the paper-makers have mostly betaken themselves to agricultural pursuits. The paper manufactured is called *basaha*, and is exported to Benares, where it is used by bankers who find it of superior durability. **Paper.**

Weaving was formerly a large and prosperous industry, and Buchanan estimated that there were over seven thousand houses of weavers working in cotton with 7,950 looms. As in other parts of the province, the hand-made article has been driven out of the market by machine-made piece-goods, and the weavers have forsaken their hereditary calling for more profitable occupations. The weaving of coarse cotton cloth is however still carried on to a certain extent, as some people prefer it to machine-made stuff as being more durable and warmer in the cold season. At the last census thirteen thousand cotton weavers were enumerated. Country blankets are woven by the shepherd caste, those made in Bhabhua being of good texture: and carpets of cotton and wool are manufactured in the Sasaram and Bhabhua subdivisions. At Sasaram they command a fair sale, but the industry is languishing owing to the importation of carpets from Mirzapur. **Weaving.**

The manufacture of lacquered pottery is a special industry at Sasaram. This pottery consists of ordinary earthen pots and vases painted over with lac. The designs and colouring display considerable taste, and though the industry is not extensive, the small cost of production and the high prices obtained leave a good margin of profit. **Pottery.**

The mineral resources of the district have hitherto been little exploited, except for the recent development of lime manufacture in the Son valley below the Rohtas plateau. *Kankar* is found in almost all parts of the plains, particularly in the beds of rivers and along the banks of the Son; it is used for metalling roads, and is also burnt in order to obtain lime. The sand-stone quarried from the Kaimur hills is **Mines.**

extensively used for building purposes, for which it is admirably adapted. It is very durable, and even now the blocks which compose the great structures built by Sher Shah and his family show little signs of decay, while the inscriptions at Rohtasgarh are still as clear cut as if they had only recently been chiselled. On the construction of the Son Canals, when a demand for building blocks was created, the Irrigation Department succeeded in obtaining all the materials they required from the Dhaudhanr hill on the Sasaram-Tilothu road, and the East Indian Railway Company used large quantities of stone extracted from the hills at Karaundia for the bridges and station buildings on the Mughalsarai-Gaya section, as well as for metalling the line. Besides this, small slabs are quarried near Sasaram for domestic purposes, being used for hand-mills and curry-stones. A small quantity of alum used to be manufactured about half a century ago in the area north of Rohtasgarh to the west of the Son, from slates belonging to the Kaimur group of the Vindhyan series; copperas or iron sulphate is also obtained in the same region.

Limestone is found at the bottom of the precipices which surround the table-land and its ridges, in the deep glens behind Shergarh, and in the bed of the Karamnasa; large quantities are extracted and, when burnt, yield a good lime. The lime-burning industry was formerly in the hands of small local men; but towards the end of the nineteenth century, large firms, European and Indian, began to work the quarries in the Son valley on a considerable scale. The development of the industry was encouraged by Government, by the offer of special facilities to several companies to start limestone quarries in the Banskatti Mahal at low rates of royalty; so that, in spite of the handicap imposed by the long road journey to the railway at Dehri, the Son valley lime could compete on practically equal terms with the products of the Katni quarries. The pioneers of the industry on a large scale were Messrs. Octavius Steel and Company with their factory at Banjari; but early in the present century other companies were working in the valley, the Rohtas Lime Company and Messrs. Mukherji and Company of Calcutta. The trains of the Dehri-Rohtas Railway, covered from end to end with lime dust, indicate to the traveller what is the main use of that line, which has brought about a great development of this industry. In the year ending March the 31st, 1923, the export of lime from Dehri-on-Sone was 35,500 tons, and of limestone 119,000 tons,

There are four factories, officially described as such, in Shahabad district. These are :— Factories

(1) The Engineering workshop of the Public Works Department at Dehri.

(2) The works of the Buxar Central Jail.

(3) The Bihar Oil Mill at Dehri.

(4) The turbine oil, sugar, and flour mills at Nasriganj.

The engineering workshop at Dehri, fitted with modern appliances, turns out all the wood and iron work for the anicut, locks and canals, and is prepared to undertake necessary ship-building for the canals, from a steam or motor launch to a jolly boat, adapted for sailing, rowing, or towing. The Buxar Central Jail is a great manufacturing concern, where the chief industry carried on is the manufacture of tents; besides this, the prisoners are employed in weaving cloth and in making uniforms and clothing for the Police and Jail Departments.

TRADE. Trade routes.

The East Indian Railway constitutes the chief artery of commerce, and the main trade of the district is that which is carried out of it or brought into it by this route. A certain amount of produce passes along the canals, which are in direct connection with the railway, as both their northern and southern termini are on the line of rail. There was formerly a considerable inter-district trade in grain, oil-seeds and *ghi* carried by pack-bullocks between Shahabad and the market town of Garwa in Palamau, but this has now been diverted to the railway by the construction of the Barun-Daltonganj line. A large amount of produce also finds its way along the various roads and then across the Ganges to the Ballia and Ghazipur districts; great quantities of bamboos are floated down the Son; and there is a considerable river-borne trade along the Ganges. The steamer service from Digha which terminates at Buxar connects that station with the great Bengal river marts, and with the marts of the United Provinces. A great part of the merchandise of the riparian tract is borne by this service and also by country boats plying on the Ganges.

Exports and imports.

Apart from the exports of lime which have been already mentioned, the principal exports are gram and pulses, refined and unrefined sugar, *gur* and molasses, and linseed. The sugar is largely exported to the Central Provinces and the United Provinces, and the linseed to Calcutta. The

principal imports are coal, salt, cotton goods, and kerosene oil. A noticeable feature in the trade of Shahabad has been the decline in the imports of rice and in the exports of wheat, which may be attributed to the extension of rice cultivation owing to canal irrigation and to the contraction of the area under wheat.

Centres of trade. The internal trade of the district is centred at the bi-weekly markets held in the large villages. Here the villagers and smaller *mahajans* bring their surplus grains on pack-bullocks and purchase their daily necessities, such as salt, cloth and oil. The grain is despatched thence in carts to the larger centres of trade on the railway, the Ganges or the Son Canals, such as Arrah, Dumraon, Buxar and Chausa on the main line of the East Indian Railway, Sasaram and Dehri on the Grand Chord Line, and Nasriganj on the Son.

Fairs. The most important fair is that held at Barahpur, a village two miles north of Raghunathpur on the main line of the East Indian Railway. It is attended by over a hundred thousand people and is held twice in the year, in February and April. It lasts twelve days ; it is essentially a cattle fair but horse dealers also attend, and a considerable trade is carried on in brass, spices, carpets, and cotton cloth. An agricultural exhibition is held in connection with the February fair, at which prizes are given for exhibits of field and garden produce and live stock. At Bhaluni in the Sasaram subdivision a fair is held in October and April in honour of the goddess Devi. It attracts about ten thousand persons; and spices, piece-goods, and articles of local manufacture are the principal articles sold. The only other fairs worthy of mention are three held at Buxar, called Khichri, Amawas, and Satawan. These are really bathing festivals, and are usually attended by about four thousand people; the principal articles of merchandise exposed for sale are piece-goods, brass-ware, earthenware, and other miscellaneous goods.

CHAPTER X.

MEANS OF COMMUNICATION.

SHAHABAD is well provided with means of communication by roads, railways, rivers, and canals. The Ganges bounds it on the north; the main line of the East Indian Railway runs along its northern boundary for sixty miles, and the Grand Chord line crosses the southern portion, while light railways run from Arrah to Sasaram and from Dehri to Akbarpur, at the foot of the Rohtas table-land. The Arrah canal, leaving the Son at Dehri, runs for sixty miles to Arrah, whence it is connected with the Ganges by the Gangi nadi, while another large navigable canal branches off a few miles below Dehri for Buxar and Sasaram. The Grand Trunk road traverses the district from south-east to north-west, and the whole district is well supplied with District Board and village roads, the mileage of which reaches a total of 2,060. The only tract in which roads are scarce and communication is difficult is the Kaimur plateau, which is approached by steep ghats and contains only rough tracks used by pack-bullocks. ROADS.

It is interesting to recall Dr. Buchanan's account of the roads in the district at the beginning of the nineteenth century. "Two great roads," he writes, "pass through the whole breadth of the district, but neither is of much advantage to commerce. One of them is the military road from Calcutta to Benares, which is kept up by the public. Laden oxen, and even carts, can pass during the rainy season, except immediately after great falls, when many torrents render it impracticable. The other road, along the old bank of the Ganges, is also a military road from Dinapore to Buxar; it is maintained by a tax of 1 per cent. levied on the whole land assessed. This road is very indifferently suited even for military purposes, as it is not practicable in the rainy season, and is not carried through between any two great stations. Wheeled carriages, even on these roads, are very little Buchanan's account.

employed except by travellers of rank, and that chiefly for their own conveyance, or occasionally that of their baggage. Almost the only means of conveyance procurable for hire in the interior, or even close to the Ganges, consists of pack-bullocks. Porters are used to carry the baggage of travellers, and weavers and shoe-makers are generally held bound to perform this service whenever required by their landlords, who in return exempt them from ground-rent for their huts." Even as late as 1865 the bad state of communications aggravated the severity of the famine, and in the year 1869 the difficulty of conveying grain into the interior was increased by the small number and badness of the roads. The deplorable state of affairs at that time may be gathered from a report of the District Engineer, who wrote :—" The grain that was to give life to the people had to be distributed throughout the district, and the imperfect condition of the local roads rendered this a task of the utmost difficulty. During the rains, when the importations were greatest, the Sasaram and Arrah road, which is the principal line in the district, but unmetalled, was crowded with traffic; and it was painful to witness long strings of carts, half a hundred in a line, cutting their way through a foot deep of puddles." Ten years later there were only two metalled roads, the Grand Trunk Road, and the road from Durgauti to Zamania, the latter of which ran in the district for only 6½ miles. Besides these, there were sixteen roads, unmetalled but bridged and raised throughout, with a total length of 431 miles; and altogether there were 957 miles of District Board roads. Since that period the construction of additional roads and the improvement of those existing has received close attention; and the famines of 1874-75 and 1896-97 gave a great impetus in this direction. During the first famine five roads with aggregate length of 109 miles were made as relief works; and in the latter famine the distressed were employed on the construction of eleven roads, of which five with a total length of 56 miles were completed. In addition to the Grand Trunk Road, which is the only road maintained from Provincial funds, there were at the end of last century (1899-1900) altogether 181 miles of metalled, 253 miles of unmetalled roads, and 882 miles of village roads. The number of roads of all classes has since increased, and the District Board now maintains 198 miles of metalled, 478 miles of unmetalled roads, and 1,383 miles of village roads. The upkeep of these roads is expensive, the

annual cost of repairs for each mile of metalled road being Rs. 806, and for each mile of unmetalled road Rs. 135.

THE GRAND TRUNK ROAD.

From Sasaram to the Karamnasa the Grand Trunk Road follows the line of the old royal road from Patna to Delhi, which ran through Phulwari, Naubatpur and Arwal to Hariharganj. By this road travelled John Surman's embassy to Farrukhsiyar; and here, half a century later, Mir Kasim's army passed in flight, pursued by John Adams and Knox. It was on this road during that campaign that the mutinies occurred near Sawath on the Durgauti, where the suspension bridge now crosses the river, which have been described in Chapter II above. The first step towards the building of the through road to Calcutta was taken at that time, in December of 1763, when Randfurlie Knox as Quartermaster-General deputed Captain James Nicol* to survey the country from Sasaram towards Calcutta, to ascertain what routes existed, and what should be the alignment of a through trunk road. The Grand Trunk Road, which originally passed through Hazaribagh and Chatra to Sherghati, was constructed a few years later, preserving the alignment of the old road from Sasaram to the Karamnasa. From its construction, until the coming of the East Indian Railway, this road was the main road of communication by land between Bengal and Upper India; and until recent years it was much used by troops on the march in the cold weather. The stages from Dehri, all marked by military camping grounds, are at Sasaram, Jahanabad, Mohania, Durgauti, and Khajura: and near the road may still be seen old semaphore towers, used for telegraphic communication before the days of electricity. Here and there are lonely tombs of soldiers who were overtaken by sudden illness on the march, generally of the time of the Mutiny or earlier; there is one at Khajura on the Karamnasa, where a gunner of the 79th Battery of the R. F. A. was drowned in December of 1910, while bathing in a deep pool scoured out during the rains by the side of a pier of the bridge.

The Grand Trunk Road runs for 56¼ miles through Shahabad district, leaving it by a large masonry bridge which crosses the Karamnasa at Khajura. It is bridged throughout in this district; but between Dehri and Barun across the Son, there is only a stone causeway which is often difficult to

* Caraccioli I, p. 338.

cross. The principal roads which branch off from it are those from Sasaram to Arrah, from Mohania to Bhabhua, and from Durgauti to Zamania, and the unmetalled roads from Dehri to Akbarpur, and from Dehri to Bikramganj. There is a dâk bungalow at Sasaram, at the 350th mile from Calcutta, and inspection bungalows at Dehri (mile 338); Mohania (mile 375); and Durgauti (mile 387). There is another inspection bungalow at Jahanabad (Kudra), at the 365th mile, which is usually occupied by an officer of the Public Works Department, and an inspection bungalow, in addition to the dâk bungalow, at Sasaram.

The Ganges Road.

The other great historic road of the district is the Ganges road, from Koilwar through Arrah and Buxar to Chausa, which runs in Shahabad for 64 miles. Except for the short portion which passes through Arrah, and between Dumraon and Buxar, the road is not metalled; and it is therefore liable to become impassable after heavy rain. Up and down this road marched Carnac with his army in 1764; and here later in the year Munro came back to Buxar, where he gained his decisive victory. The fights which occurred in the course of Munro's march at Koilwar and the Banas river have been mentioned in Chapter II, where is also given an account of Vincent Eyre's engagement at the latter place in 1857.

Other roads.

Other important roads are: (1) the metalled road from Arrah to Sasaram, 61 miles in length, a good road, which has not been improved by the Arrah-Sasaram light railway; (2) the metalled road from Nasriganj to Dumraon, which crosses the Arrah-Sasaram road at Bikramganj; (3) the metalled road from Piru to Shahpur through Bihia; (4) the metalled road from Arrah to Bahiyara on the Son; (5) the unmetalled road from Koilwar, running by the Son through Dehri to Akbarpur and beyond to the border of the district, and the unmetalled roads from Chausa to Sasaram, and from Chausa to Mohania. A list of roads and bungalows is given in the Appendix.

Railways

Shahabad is fairly well served by railways. The main line of the East Indian Railway runs through the north of the district, which it enters at Koilwar, where a fine lattice-girder bridge has been built across the Son. This great work was commenced for a single line of rails in 1855, and after many interruptions during the Mutiny, was completed in 1862; the second line was begun in 1868, and finished

two years later. The total length of the bridge from back to back of the abutments is 4,199 feet, divided among 28 spans of 150 feet each. Underneath each line of rail is a sub-way for foot-passengers and beasts of burden. The line as far as Benares was completed in 1862, and in 1869 the large importations of grain it brought into the district saved it from famine.

The south of the district is tapped by the Grand Chord line of the East Indian Railway, running from Dehri-on-Son to the Karamnasa, with a total length in this district of 53 miles. It is carried over the Son by one of the longest bridges in the world, which was constructed in three years at a cost of thirty-five lakhs of rupees; the total length is 10,044 feet, and it comprises 93 spans of 108 feet each. A light railway runs from Arrah, on the main line of the East Indian Railway, to Sasaram on the Grand Chord Line. The District Board guarantees to supplement the net earnings of the Arrah-Sasaram Railway Company by such annual subsidy as may be necessary to allow of the Company's paying a dividend of four per cent. and any profits in excess of four per cent. are equally divided between the Board and the Company. The Dehri-Rohtas Light Railway runs for 24 miles, from Dehri-on-Son to Akbarpur. The District Board permitted this railway to use the existing road; but they have not guaranteed its profits.

WATER COMMUNICATIONS.

The Ganges is navigable throughout the year; and a steamer service for passengers and goods traffic plies as far as Buxar. Of the other rivers the Karamnasa, the Durgauti and the Shuara are navigable only during the rainy season. Boats of fifty maunds burden sail up the Karamnasa to the confluence of the Durgauti; on the latter river boats can sail up-stream for about fifty miles; and on the Shuara boats of a hundred maunds burden ply up to the foot of the hills, where extensive lime quarries are worked. The Kao or Dhoba is only navigable for a short distance from its junction with the Ganges. Navigation on the Son is intermittent and of little commercial importance; in the dry season the small depth of water prevents boats of more than twenty maunds proceeding up-stream, while the violent floods in the rains equally deter large boats, though boats of five or six hundred maunds occasionally sail up. The main canals of the Son irrigation system are navigable, 123 miles of canals being

now open to navigation; and a bi-weekly service of steamers runs from Dehri to Arrah. The canal-borne traffic used to be considerable, but has suffered greatly from competition with the Mughalsarai-Gaya Railway. This line attracts the traffic that was formerly sent along the canals; and the steamer service which formerly ran along the Buxar canal had to be abandoned in 1901. The river and canal traffic is almost entirely carried on by means of country boats, some having a capacity of as much as a thousand maunds.

POSTAL COMMUNICATIONS.

There are 469 miles of postal communications in the district, and 103 post offices. The number of postal articles delivered in 1922-23 was 3,758,848; the value of money-orders issued was Rs. 26,83,890, and of those paid Rs. 56,66,648. There were 8,462 accounts in the Savings Bank, the total amount of the deposits being Rs. 7,15,682. There are also 26 telegraph offices; the number of messages sent and received was 45,815 and 44,095 respectively.

CHAPTER XI.

LAND REVENUE ADMINISTRATION.

REVENUE HISTORY. The Muhammadan period.

THE existing district of Shahabad (except Chausa) formed in 1685 part of the districts of Shahabad and Rohtas. *Sarkar* Shahabad included the northern parganas of the present district, with the addition of three parganas on the west, Ratan, Kotah, and Mangror, which were acquired at a later date by Balwant Singh of Benares and annexed to *sarkàr* Chunar. The southern parganas of the district, Chainpur, Sasaram, and Rohtas, were in *sarkar* Rohtas, which then included also Siris-Kutumba, Japla, and Belaunja, on the Eastern bank of the Son. The revision of 1685 raised the assessment of Shahabad from Rs. 6,18,221 to Rs. 7,77,295, and that of Rohtas from Rs. 4,03,765 to Rs. 4,55,538. At Alivardi Khan's revision in 1750 the assessment was raised to Rs. 5,39,565 for Rohtas, and to Rs. 8,26,845 for Shahabad.* Kasim Ali forced up the assessment of Rohtas to Rs. 13,94,218, and that of Shahabad to Rs. 15,47,055, though Shahabad had lost the three parganas acquired by Balwant Singh. In Rohtas this must have been merely a nominal assessment, which could not have been realised, because there had for some years been anarchy in the *sarkar*, where Pahlwan Singh was ruling in Chainpur and Sasaram, and Bishun Singh of Powai in the parganas across the Son had for many years been defying the local revenue authorities. In 1766 Muhammad Reza Khan revised the assessment, fixing the revenues of the parganas now included in Shahabad district (except Chausa) at Rs. 10,04,241.

The farming system.

The farming system had been established in Shahabad, as in the rest of Bihar, from the beginning of the eighteenth century; and the Mughal collecting hierarchy of mukaddams,

* *See* Part II of Mr. J. A. Hubback's Shahabad Settlement Report of 1918, from which the greater part of this chapter is taken.

chaudhris and amils had fallen into decay, except in Haveli Rohtas, where the collection of Kharwar chaudhris which survived was rather an ancient indigenous system than a creation of the Mughals. The effect of the farming system was that zamindars ordinarily lost the right to collect the rents of their raiyats, where they had been doing this as amils, retaining a certain area free of revenue for their maintenance as *nankar* land, together with a percentage of the gross collections, known as malikana, which was usually commuted by the grant of certain further villages as malikana villages. The farmer made what he could out of the remaining area; and the system was bad, because the farmer had no permanent interest in the land, and he was apt to neglect irrigation works, and to squeeze the raiyats to the utmost possible limits, in order to meet his current engagements.

Revenue administration, 1766—1781.

In the treaties of August 1765, Shitab Rai,* the Imperial Diwan, was appointed to receive for the emperor the annual sum of twenty-six lakhs of rupees. In 1766 Shitab Rai became the Company's diwan for Bihar, and though he still retained the title of Imperial Diwan, with the additional title of Maharaja Bahadur, the responsibility for transmitting the reserved revenue was transferred by the emperor to Maniruddaula. From 1766 settlements were made by Shitab Rai, who was nominally controlled by the Chief of the Patna Factory, styled at first Collector of Bihar, and in 1769 Supervisor. In 1770 the Revenue Council of Patna was constituted to supervise revenue matters; and from the beginning this Council interfered actively in matters of detail. The revenues were

* The history of Shitab Rai belongs to the story of Patna district rather than to that of Shahabad; but a brief note may be given here, since it explains what would otherwise be obscure, why Shitab Rai was reinstated as diwan after his office had been abolished, and why his son subsequently enjoyed such favoured treatment. Shitab Rai, a Kayastha of exceptional character and capacity, was brought up at Delhi in the household of Samsam-ed-daula, son of the Khan Dauran of John Surman's time. He came to Patna in 1758 as Imperial Diwan of Bihar and Governor of the fortress of Rohtas, both posts at that time of dignity rather than of real responsibility or emolument; but he held also the large jagirs of Samsam-ed-daula in Pilich and Malda parganas of Bihar. In 1760 he raised a force of three hundred horse, with which he took an active part in the defence of Patna until the city was relieved by Randfurlie Knox, on the 28th of April. On the following 14th of June he crossed the Ganges to assist Knox in his desperate adventure against Kadm Hussain. He subsequently conducted the negotiations with Shah Alam at Gaya in 1761; and he accompanied Clive to Allahabad in August of 1765. The head of the family among his descendants held rank as premier nobleman of Bihar until mid-Victorian days. The last of his descendants in the male line died twenty years ago at Patna.

farmed on a five years' lease in 1772; and this arrangement was in existence when the despatch of August the 28th, 1771, was received, wherein the Directors of the Company announced their intention to stand forth as diwan, and ordered that Shitab Rai's post should be abolished, and that an enquiry should be held into his administration during the famine of 1770.* Thereupon the post of Company's diwan in Bihar, hitherto held by Shitab Rai, was formally and publicly abolished; but it was restored in the following year, when Shitab Rai was reinstated. He returned to Patna to die; but his son Kallian Singh was appointed in succession to him to the office of Company's diwan, with Khiali Ram and Sadhu Ram as his naibs.** Kallian Singh's post was practically a sinecure, because the Council, which had taken control during his father's suspension, continued to administer the revenues of Bihar, with increasing inefficiency. From 1776 to 1780 the quinquennial farm was continued by annual settlements; but in 1781 the Council was abolished. Maharaja Kallian Singh became farmer-general for Bihar and he divided his farm with one of his naibs, Raja Khiali Ram, the Agarwala financier of Patna. William Maxwell was appointed Revenue Chief to supervise the revenue affairs of Bihar. He died in August of 1781; and after a brief interregnum he was succeeded by William Augustus Brooke, who remained in the office until it was abolished in 1787.

Shahabad under the Revenue Chief 1781—1787.

In the division of the revenues of Bihar, Khiali Ram obtained the least remunerative and most troublesome parganas. Among these were Chainpur and Sasaram, and the rest of the old *sarkar* Rohtas, an area particularly affected by the disturbances which attended Chait Singh's rebellion in the late summer and autumn of 1781. Raja Khiali Ram was consequently unable to meet his engagements; and the parganas were settled with other farmers. Kallian Singh's status as Company's diwan and premier nobleman of Bihar, which he had inherited from his honoured father, saved him from the measures of personal coercion which were applied to the unfortunate Khiali Ram; but pargana after pargana was taken from him, until in 1783 his farm came to an

* For the despatches to and from India, *see* Carraccioli, Vol. II, p. 389 and Vol. IV, pp. 223 and 250. On the trial of Shitab Rai, *see* *Annals of Rural Bengal*, p. 39.

** For the appointment of the naibs, and the salary of the diwan (fifty thousand rupees a year), *see* Patna Council Consultations of September 24th, 1774.

end. His jagirs and salary were attached for five years for the accumulated arrears; and his diwani was once more a sinecure, which he enjoyed for the rest of his long life.

John Shore's settlement, 1783—1785.

John Shore was now specially deputed to make a resettlement of the Province of Bihar, which he did in the last three months of 1783. The whole of Shahabad was settled with Ahmad Ali Khan, one of the great revenue farmers, for three years at the annual jama of Rs. 9,10,208. Ahmad Ali Khan evidently tried hard to meet his engagements; but he was in trouble from the beginning of his farm, and he had to resign it in 1785. Renters in those days enjoyed large powers of distraint and of coercion of raiyats; but Shahabad was not a favourable country for the exercise of such powers by an interloper. In the rainy season of 1785 Chaudhri Dhawal Singh, zamindar of Dinara, attacked Ahmad Ali Khan's office; and after killing four men and wounding thirteen others, he looted the treasury and released the defaulters who were in confinement. Ahmad Ali Khan complained that the raiyats would beat his sazawals, and that when closely pressed for their rents they would stab themselves; altogether, it is evident that it was very difficult to realise the stipulated revenue, and that the attempt was accompanied by considerable oppression of the raiyats.*

Separation of Rohtas district, 1784.

Separate districts of Saran and Tirhut had already been constituted; another large area was cut off in 1784 from the Revenue Chief's jurisdiction, leaving him only the north and west of zilla Bihar, and the old *sarkar* Shahabad. The new district of Rohtas included Chainpur and Sasaram parganas, with the parganas east of them across the Son, up to and including the Tikari zamindari. Thomas Law was appointed Magistrate and Collector of the district, with headquarters at Gaya.

Annual settlements, 1785—1787.

Brooke pressed for a settlement for a term of at least five years; but he was ordered to continue Shore's settlement by annual extensions. In 1786 a thousand raiyats of Danwar pargana, wearied by the exactions of the farmer Santokh Rai, deserted to Sasaram. Brooke asked Thomas Law to hand over the absconders to the farmer; but Law declined, perceiving that there must have been real oppression to drive cultivators to leave their land and their homes. Some idea of the exactions attempted by farmers may be gathered from the *abwab*

* On this subject, see *Revenue Chief of Bihar*, pp. 43-45 and 122-125.

levied by Dost Dawan Singh of Dumraon, who held the farm of the northern parganas. Brooke found him in 1787 attempting to collect as rent over three-fourths of the produce; but he declined to permit the exaction of rent at this rate, holding the farmer to the condition of his covenant which prohibited collection of more than nine-sixteenths.*

Constitution of Shahabad district, 1787.

Early in 1787 the Government of Lord Cornwallis decided to divide the country into collectorships of moderate size, in preparation for the new settlement for a term of at least ten years. It was proposed that the collections of a single district should not exceed five lakhs of rupees; but this standard was not observed in south Bihar, where the new districts were large. Zila Rohtas was split up, its eastern portion forming part of Thomas Law's new district of Bihar; while the western portion fell into Shahabad district, of which William Augustus Brooke became the first Collector. The district, as then constituted, consisted of the area now included in Shahabad, without Chausa, and with the addition of the Doaba pargana on the northern bank of the Ganges. The new arrangement came into effect in July of 1787.

The Decennial Settlement.

In August of 1787 general directions were issued to Collectors to make preparations for the new settlement, which was to be for a term of years, to be made where possible with zamindars. At the end of the year Thomas Law prepared his *Mukarrari Plan*, for the re-settlement of the Narhat-Samai country; and his scheme for a permanent settlement was supported by Brooke, who had certainly seen enough of the evils attending the farming system and short term settlements. The new settlement was for ten years from 1789 (1197 F.S.), but in 1793 it was made permanent. More than half of the area of the old *sarkar* Shahabad was settled with the heads of the three great branches of the Rajput family which had for so long been predominant in this part of the district, Raja Bikramajit Singh of Dumraon, and his kinsmen Bhupnarain Singh and Bhagwat Singh, of Jagdishpur and Buxar. There would have been justification for excluding from settlement Chaudhri Dhawal Singh; but his past violence was condoned, and most of Dinara was

* This rate had been fixed as the maximum rent by the Patna Council on November 5th, 1770; and the standard form of the farmers' kabuliyat contained an undertaking not to collect at higher rates on any pretext. *Revenue Chief of Bihar*, pp. 11, 45, 160.

settled with him. Rai Bakshi Ram, son of Raja Khiali Ram, already held a permanent settlement of Pawarah; but in 1792 he defaulted, and his estate was then settled with petty landlords. In Arrah, Bihia, Danwar and Dinara, Nurul Husain Khan, ancestor of the Koath family, held a large zamindari, of which he had for some years been out of possession, holding certain villages in lieu of *malikana*. He had sold or mortgaged many of these villages, whereby complications were introduced which made it difficult to throw back the *malikana* land into the zamindari, which was a necessary condition to settling the whole with the zamindar. Consequently, he was left in possession of his *malikana* villages, and the rest of the zamindari was settled with the farmers who were in possession.

In the south of the district, the ancient Rajput family which had originally ruled at Chainpur had been ousted early in the sixteenth century by the Pathans; but the head of the family, Raja Arimardan Singh of Bhagwanpur, had been recognised as zamindar by Muhammad Reza Khan in 1766; and collateral relations of Arimardan Singh held small estates at Ramgarh and Jaitpur. These smaller zamindars obtained settlement in 1789; but the main estate had been confiscated in 1785, when Arimardan Singh had murdered a neighbour; and the greater part of Chainpur was settled with small proprietors, while part was held *khas* by Government, forming to the present day Government estates in the Kaimur Hills in the Bhabhua subdivision. In the Sasaram pargana a Rajput named Pahlwan Singh had established himself in the first half of the eighteenth century in a manner much resembling that of Kamgar Khan in Hasua, but the zamindari status of his descendants Jagannath Singh and Sannaut Singh had been definitely recognised by the Patna Council, and they were now admitted to settlement of the villages in which their zamindari right had been acknowledged, while the rest of the pargana was settled with petty 'proprietors'—collectors of rent in villages (mukaddams), or in groups of villages (chaudhris). Haveli Rohtas did not come under settlement in 1789. This pargana had been given in *jagir* to Raja Shah Mal, as a reward for his complaisance in surrendering Rohtasgarh to Captain Goddard in August of 1764; and the grant had been continued for the life of his own Harbans Rai, subject to payment of revenue of Rs. 11,119. When Harbans Rai died in 1803, the grant was continued

with his widow and mother, who lived at Tilothu. In 1813 the grant was resumed, and the pargana was permanently settled, *malikana* villages and a part of the rest of the estate being settled with the two Ranis. The widow adopted a son to Harbans Rai, and her estate is still in possession of his descendants.

Assessment at the Permanent Settlement.

* The following table shows the assessment of 1766, compared with that of the Decennial Settlement, and with the assessment as it stood in 1815, and later in 1876, when the Statistical Account of the district was prepared. The pargana has now been abandoned as the revenue unit.

Sarkar.	Pargana.	Area in sq. miles, according to Revenue Survey of 1844-5.	Assessment of 1766 according to Grant.		Decennial Settlement, Assessment, 1791.	Revenue in 1815.	Revenue in 1876.
			Asal.	Net.			
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Rohtas	Rohtas ...	519	30,882	*Nil*	11,119	19,166	26,793
	Chainpur ..	1,028	96,161	3,94,973	2,95,517	2,94,914	3,29,968
	Sasaram ...	843	2,43,000		1,55,664	1,61,126	2,32,111
Shahabad.	Bhojpur ...	424	1,73,220		1,38,521	1,42,771	1,62,008
	Bihia ...	231	1,25,000		1,22,768	1,40,663	1,47,681
	Piro ...	202	40,341		43,818	45,449	1,62,360
	Nonaur ...	107	33,691		21,909	22,149	1,05,743
	Arrah ...	260	1,46,663	6,00,268	1,25,502	1,65,856	2,62,735
	Danwar ...	336	1,36,804		45,584	51,847	78,409
	Dinarah ...	55			13,025	17,021	21,019
	Pawarah ...	113	22,226		32,141	44,594	53,604
	Barahgaon ...	84	31,226		25,073	28,437	35,766
	Total ...	4,202	10,79,214	10,04,241	10,30,639	11,34,003	16,18,197

CHAUSA PARGANA.

Chausa pargana was part of the zamindari of Chait Singh, which was taken in *khas* possession by the Company after 1781. Jonathan Duncan in 1790 made a settlement with village landlords which, except in Taluqa Indapur, became permanent under Regulation I of 1795. In 1818 the pargana became part of Shahabad district; and in 1822 the Collector Mr. Dunsmore made a settlement, by which the revenue of that portion of the pargana which was not permanently settled was raised from Rs. 23,650 to Rs. 50,487.

Resumption proceedings.

The regular resumption and settlement proceedings in 1837; 1,025 invalid grants were resumed and settled at Shahabad district began in 1833 and were completed by Rs. 1,80,950. The result of these proceedings and of the annexation of Chausa was that by 1843 the total land revenue demand of the district was Rs. 13,55,282.

* Settlement Report, p. 17.

Confiscations in 1857.

In 1857-58 869 estates of rebels in the district were confiscated, of which the most important was that of Kuar Singh of Jagdishpur, successor of the Bhupnarain of 1781. This resulted in a considerable increase in the revenue demand an addition of Rs. 1,75,000 having accrued from Jagdishpur estate alone. By 1858 the total demand was Rs. 15,81,241.

Present land-revenue.

It is difficult to explain briefly the later fluctuations in the land revenue demand, owing to variations in the system of classification. Those readers who are interested in the subject will find it discussed in part VI of Mr. J. A. Hubback's Settlement Report. There are now 18,983 revenue-paying estates, and 621 revenue-free estates in the district. The total number of separate interests recorded in the Collector's registers is 78,433. The present land revenue demand (1921-22) is as follows :—

	Rs.
Permanently-settled estates	15,01,795
Temporarily-settled estates	1,73,110
Government estates	2,22,629

GOVERNMENT AND TEMPORARILY-SETTLED ESTATES. Mr. Mylne's estates.

The confusion in classification to which reference has been made is to be attributed in part to the dubious status of the occupiers of some estates, who might be regarded as holders of temporarily-settled estates, or as lessees of Government estates. The largest of such occupiers or proprietors is Mr. Ernest Mylne, son of one of the partners of the late Mr. Burrows, who between 1858 and 1861 obtained settlement of a large area which had been confiscated from Kuar Singh. This included a large area under jungle, which the lessee undertook to clear, for which a definite promise of resettlement on the expiry of the lease in 1908 had been given. Even in this area the status of the lessees was doubtful, because the promise of resettlement gave only a right to such terms as might be in force for the settlement of Government khas mahals. There was a large area outside this jungle mahal (the *baharsi* villages), regarding which no promise of resettlement on the expiry of the original term had been given. On the expiry of the leases in 1908, Mr. Mylne was recognised as a temporarily-settled proprietor, and a summary settlement of his estates was made. In 1914 a regular resettlement was made by the Settlement Officer of south Bihar, for a period of twenty years. The revenue, on the basis of the assets, was then increased from Rs. 55,195 to Rs. 77,070 : while the effect of the settlement proceedings was to increase the proprietor's rent-roll from Rs. 1,41,528 to Rs. 1,54,141.

Estates in Chausa pargana.

There was a resettlement of temporarily-settled estates in Chausa pargana in 1906-07, wherein there was a certain amount of over-assessment of *mufassal* assets; and when proprietors were offered settlement at seventy per cent., they declined to accept it. In some cases, after this attempt at settlement, the offer was made and accepted of settlement at fifty per cent., but many of the estates remained under direct management, the proprietors taking their *malikana*. At the general resettlement in 1914, the normal proportion of assets taken as revenue was 55 per cent; *mufassal* assets were found to be Rs. 1,07,575, and the revenue was fixed at Rs. 58,683.

Government Estates.

Apart from the temporarily-settled estates, there are 103 estates held direct by Government, with a rental of Rs. 2,22,629.* These include the ancient *nizamat* area of Buxar bazar and fort, several estates purchased by Government in default of bidders at Revenue sales, some alluvial accretions in the Ganges, and estates in the Bhabhua subdivision, confiscated on the outlawry of the zamindar Arimardan Singh in 1785. Not the least curious history is that of Dudhar-Pauni, which was abandoned early in the nineteenth century owing to a belief that it was haunted by evil spirits; this brought about its sale for arrears of revenue, when it was bought up by Government.

Banskati Mahal.

Among these estates, the Banskati Mahal calls for special mention. It is an estate of an exceptional order which is almost unique in a permanently-settled district, as Government does not possess any proprietary rights in the land, but only incorporeal rights to certain spontaneous products, fuel, grass, minerals and the like. The estate lies in the Rohtas pargana, which was held in *jagir* by Raja Shah Mal and his family from 1765 to 1812, as has been already described. Raja Shah Mal imposed a duty on all wood, bamboos and other forest produce taken out of any part of the pargana, whether from the plateau or from the villages in the valley. When the estate was resumed and settled, Government retained the Rohtas plateau as its property, together with the Banskati mahal, or the right which Shah Mal and Harbans Rai had exercised of collecting spontaneous products or of levying duties on them when collected by others. The mahal was

* On the confusing variation in the systems of classification of temporarily-settled estates, estates of recusant proprietors, Government estates farmed, and Government estates held *khas*, see Mr. J. A. Hubback's Settlement Report, pp. 129-131.

farmed out, except for a brief interval, until 1885; but since that time it has been managed direct by the officers of Government.

The right to levy the Banskati dues now extends over about two hundred square miles, and 108 villages are subject to them. The *mahal* was once conterminous with the whole of the Rohtas *pargana*, but various causes have reduced it to its present dimensions, such as mismanagement for many years and the special exemption of different portions. Thus the twelve *mauzās* retained by Shah Mal's family in 1812 were allowed to be exempt, and in 1847, the Raja of Sonpura, owner of *mahal* Khandaul, an estate covering over sixty square miles and containing 39 *mauzas* in the Son valley and on the slopes of the plateau beyond Rohtas, succeeded in obtaining an order from the Commissioner declaring that *mahal* was not subject to Banskati dues. Lastly, Kachhuhar, an estate extending for over forty square miles on the plateau and slopes north of the Akbarpur valley, which had been confiscated from Kuar Singh, was also exempted in 1863 from the Banskati Mahal in virtue of a revenue-free grant which Government had made of the estate to Mr. Bingham in recognition of the services rendered by him in the Mutiny.*

The dues are levied in various ways. Grazing fees are charged for the privilege of pasturage; where the products of the land are required to carry on a trade or where the probable outturn can be estimated as in the case of lime-kilns, a yearly fee is paid by each person carrying on the trade or for each kiln of a separate size; permit fees are levied on persons entering the forest to collect produce; and where the products are collected for exportation, a duty calculated on the amount exported is levied at toll stations. The list of duties is curious. It includes such entries as permit fees for collecting cocoons; special fees for cutting wood paid by comb-makers and carpenters, Kharwars and inhabitants of the country near the Koel; fees paid by shoe-makers and basket-makers for collecting bark and bamboo shoots; and duties on catechu, *mahua*, drift-wood, mill-stones, etc. The tariff is primitive, but the duties are of great antiquity and are well understood and acquiesced in.

LAND TENURES.

In Shahabad as elsewhere there are frequently intermediate tenure-holders between the proprietor, who holds his estate from Government, and the actual cultivator, the raiyat

* Customary rights of residents of neighbouring villages to use jungle products were preserved by the terms of the grant. See Settlement Report, page 62.

or *kashtkar*. The most common tenure is that of the *zarpeshgi thikadar*. The *zarpeshgidar* pays a certain sum down to the proprietor, in consideration of which he is entitled to collect rent from the cultivators for a term of years, a portion of the annual collections being credited towards liquidation of the *zarpeshgi* debt. Where the contract is of this nature, the tenure ends with the term of the lease; but when the *zarpeshgi* money is so high that the whole profit from the collection is absorbed by the interest on the original advance, the lease is more definitely a usufructuary mortgage, and it continues until the proprietor can obtain the means of redeeming it. The *thika* lease is also common, whereby the proprietor leases the village or group of villages to the tenure-holder, who may or may not pay a premium or *nazrana* on entry. The *thikadar* collects the rent from the raiyats, and pays a certain fixed sum annually to his lessor, who thereby avoids the trouble of making the collections for himself. The termination of any of these leases is ordinarily attended by disputes between the proprietor and the outgoing lessee and raiyats who have been inducted on the land during the pendency of the lease. There is always a condition in the lease that the lessee shall have no power to create permanent tenures; but such a condition can hardly bar the acquisition of permanent rights by a settled raiyat who has taken in good faith raiyati land which happened to be abandoned during the pendency of the lease. The *thikadar* will try to settle with his relations land of this nature, and also proprietors' private land, if there was any when he entered on the lease, and disputes arising from these transactions give much work to the civil courts. A more dignified form of tenure is the *mukarrari*, which is less common than the temporary tenures. This is a grant at a fixed rent, which may be permanent and heritable (*istimrari mukarrari*) or a grant for life (*hinhayati mukarrari*). Considerable grants of this nature, both *istimrari* and *hinhayati*, have from time to time been made by the great zamindars of the district to their diwans.

Guzashtadars.

Rights resembling those of permanent tenure-holders are enjoyed by the *guzashtadars*, raiyats at fixed rates, who hold $28\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. of the occupied area in the two northern subdivisions (Sadr and Buxar). The spectacle, unusual in these provinces, of so large a body of privileged raiyats, has given rise to much speculation regarding their origin, on the assumption that they hold some special and remarkable kind of tenure.

It has for instance been suggested that they were originally village maliks, but the distinguishing mark of a malik is his right to malikana, of which we find no trace here. The name by which they are commonly known may appear at first sight to lend plausibility to a theory that they are descendants of some kind of military jagirdars; but they did not before the Permanent Settlement hold at privileged rates, as has been already remarked above in Chapter VIII. Mr. Hubback thinks that the term *guzashta* merely implies that these raiyats have occupied their holdings from a time anterior to the Permanent Settlement; and it is unnecessary to go further to find an explanation of the name or of the tenure. The *guzashtadars* are evidently representatives of khudkasht raiyats of the eighteenth century, who have succeeded in preserving their rights. Dr. Buchanan remarks that the judge at Arrah had decided before 1812 that their rents could not be enhanced on the expiry of the term for which pattas had been granted under the Permanent Settlement Regulations; and this may possibly account for the survival of their rights.

Surveys. Between 1844 and 1846 village boundaries were surveyed, and a map on the scale of four inches to the mile was prepared by the Revenue Survey party. In 1863 survey and settlement proceedings were carried out under Act IX of 1848 in respect of the diara land of the Ganges. Between 1873 and 1878 a cadastral survey was made of the land irrigable from the Son canals. In 1881—1883 a revenue survey was made under Act V of 1875 for the estates bordering on the Ganges. Between 1901 and 1904, surveys were made, and a record-of-rights under the Bengal Tenancy Act was prepared for scattered areas amounting in all to 17,757 acres. A record-of-rights for the rest of the district was prepared by the staff under the Settlement Officer of Bihar, between 1908 and 1916.

CHAPTER XII.

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

The Legislati Council.

SHAHABAD is one of the districts of the Patna division. Apart from the share which the landholders of the district have in returning their member for the division, the district returns four members to the Legislative Council; one representing Shahabad Muhammadans, and three representing others than Muhammadans.

Subdivisions, thanas, and poli stations.

For general administrative purposes, the district is divided into four subdivisions, under the Magistrate-Collector, containing the following revenue divisions and police-stations.

Subdivision.	Thana.	Police-station.
Sadr (917 square miles)	Arrah ...	Arrah. Arrah Mufassal Sandes. Barahra.
	Shahpur ...	Shahpur. Jagdispur.
	Piro ...	Piro. Sahar.
Buxar (659 square miles)	Buxar ...	Buxar. Rajpur.
	Dumraon ...	Dumraon. Nawanagar. Barhampur.
Sasaram (1,481 square miles).	Bikramganj ...	Bikramganj. Dinara.
	Karghar ...	Karghar. Nokha.
	Sasaram ...	Sasaram. Rohtas (Akbarpur). Chenari.
	Dehri ...	Dehri. Nasriganj.
Bhabh (1,296 square miles).	Mohania ...	Mohania. Ramgarh. Durgauti (Sauath). Kudra (Jahanabad).
	Bhabhua ...	Bhabhua. Chainpur. Adhaura. Chand.

REVENUE. Cesses.

The road and public works cesses are as usual levied at the maximum rate of one anna in the rupee, and the current demand in 1922 was Rs. 5,50,458, the greater part of which (Rs. 5,11,735) was payable by 18,731 revenue-paying estates. A revaluation of the whole district was undertaken between

1914 and 1916, which resulted in the addition of Rs. 95,667 to the cess demand.

Miscellaneous revenue.

The following table shows the collections under other main heads of miscellaneous revenue for the five years from 1917 to 1922 :—

	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Stamps: Judicial ...	4,67,145	4,36,655	4,85,010	4,78,111	5,14,703
Non-Judicial	1,13,288	1,14,067	1,63,998	1,59,858	1,95,901
Excise ...	6,82,435	7,12,367	7,67,300	8,14,879	9,32,479
Income-tax ...	64,883	76,957	76,619	70,450	1,02,587

Stamps.

During the ten years ending in 1904-5 the revenue from stamps rose from Rs. 3,10,827 to Rs. 3,89,990; that from judicial stamps rising from Rs. 2,30,070 to Rs. 2,98,007. The great increase in the revenue from judicial stamps in the last seventeen years is chiefly due to the increase in the number of rent suits, facilitated by the preparation of the record-of-rights, which has led landlords to adopt the regular method of realising arrears of rent through the courts in preference to the irregular methods of self-help which were formerly common.

Excise.

The excise revenue in 1921-22 was derived from the following main heads :—

		Rs.
Country spirits :	duty	3,28,210
	vendors' license fees ...	1,18,110
Country fermented liquor (*tari*)		94,955
Opium		23,959
Hemp drugs :	duty	2,50,194
	vendors' license fees	1,09,399

The consumption of country spirit is 4·63 gallons to every hundred persons, less than half of that in the adjoining district of Patna. In the rural area there is one liquor shop for every 38 square miles, five for each hundred thousand of population. On the other hand the consumption of hemp drugs is higher than in any other district of Bihar and Orissa, amounting to 65 seers for each ten thousand of population, as compared with 26 seers for the province, and 49 seers in the adjoining district of Patna. The consumption of hemp drugs is practically confined to *ganja*, the unimpregnated dried flowering tops of the cultivated female hemp plant (*cannabis sativa*).

There are seven offices for the registration of assurances under Act III of 1877, one at Arrah with a joint sub-registry office at Koelwar, and the other five in the interior at Bhabhua, Bikramganj, Buxar, Jagdispur and Sasaram. At the head-quarters station the Special Sub-Registrar deals, as usual, with the documents presented there, and assists the District Magistrate, who is *ex-officio* Registrar, in supervising the proceedings of the Rural Sub-Registrars who are in charge of the other registration offices. Registration.

The marginal statement shows the number of documents registered and the receipts and expenditure at each office in 1904, given in the first edition of this Gazetteer, with the statistics for 1922. Mr. O'Malley remarked that registrations had increased little since 1895, when 14,021 documents were registered; but a great change in this respect came with the preparation of the record-of-rights and the litigation which accompanied and followed it, which made it clear that it was unsafe to rely upon verbal mortgages, or unregistered documents, where registration was required by law.

Office.	Documents registered.		Receipts.		Expenditure.	
	1904	1922	1904	1922	1904	1922
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Arrah ...	4,045	6,458	10,397	30,592	4,013	9,679
Bhabhua ..	1,145	2,263	2,093	6,233	930	2,758
Bikramganj ...	1,050	3,088	1,581	8,666	897	3,486
Buxar ...	2,452	5,596	3,512	19,090	1,439	3,752
Jagdispur ...	2,493	5,948	3,672	20,342	1,411	3,451
Koelwar ...	1,186	1,690	1,404	5,170	910	2,835
Sasaram ...	1,824	4,254	3,104	11,561	1,297	3,197
Total ...	14,195	29,297	25,763	1,01,654	10,897	29,158

The judicial staff entertained for the purposes of civil justice consists of the District Judge, two Subordinate Judges, and three Munsifs stationed at Arrah, and of two Munsifs at each of the subdivisional headquarters of Buxar and Sasaram. Civil business has greatly increased since the first edition of this Gazetteer was published. Apart from the increase in rent suits, which has been already mentioned, the increase is marked in suits of high valuation. Whereas in 1904, 296 suits valued at over a thousand rupees were instituted, in 1921 the number was 417. ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE. Civil Justice.

Criminal justice is administered by the District Judge, who is also Sessions Judge, and by the District Magistrate and fifteen subordinate magistrates at the headquarters and subdivisional stations. Under the existing arrangement these fifteen magistrates also perform revenue functions as deputy Criminal Justice.

or sub-deputy collectors; one of them, a sub-deputy collector at sadr, is specially appointed for partition work. The sanctioned staff at Arrah consists, in addition to the District Magistrate and this partition officer, of five deputy magistrates exercising first-class powers, and two exercising second or third class powers. The subdivisional officers are magistrates vested with first-class powers; and there are also stationed at Sasaram a deputy magistrate and a sub-deputy magistrate; at Buxar a deputy magistrate; and at Bhabhua a sub-deputy magistrate, to assist the subdivisional officers. The Superintending Engineer and the Executive Engineer at Arrah have the powers of magistrates of the third class, and try cases connected with breaches of Irrigation laws. There are benches of Honorary Magistrates at Arrah, Bhabhua, Buxar, Dumraon, Jagdispur, and Sasaram. In all there are thirty-eight honorary magistrates, of whom ten are empowered to sit singly for the trial of cases.

Crime.

The following statement shows the number of persons convicted of various classes of offences for each of the five years ending with 1921, by the ordinary criminal courts of the district.

Class of offence.	Number of persons convicted.				
	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921
Offences against public tranquillity (Chapter VIII, Indian Penal Code).	416	201	251	227	257
Offences by or relating to public servants (Chapters IX and X).	49	40	53	62	73
Offences against public justice and false evidence (Chapter XI).	19	27	37	14	14
Offences relating to coins and stamps (Chapters XII and XIII).	1	12	1	4	2
Offences affecting public health, etc. (Chapters XIV and XV).	17	18	13	2	7
Offences against the person Chapter XVI).	315	283	217	276	266
Offences against property (Chapter XVII).	389	392	610	514	369
Other offences under the Penal Code (Chapters XVIII and XXII).	22	28	28	19	16
Offences under special laws ...	2,089	2,163	2,381	1,255	1,738
Total	3,317	3,164	3,591	2,373	2,742

The above statement does not take account of the work of special tribunals under the Defence of India Act, by whom 2,465 persons were sentenced to various terms of imprisonment in 1917-18, for complicity in the great Bakr-Id riots of 1917, which have been described in Chapter III above. If these figures were included, it would appear that Shahabad had recovered its old unenviable notoriety for dacoities; but these dacoities were the outcome of religious and political excitement, and distinguishable from ordinary dacoity, which is not now common in the district. Here as elsewhere, burglary is now the commonest offence. The soft mud walls of the houses, the weary sleep of the inmates, the negligence (or often the acquiescence) of the *chaukidars* combined with the adroitness of the burglar to render his trade easy and his identification a rare occurrence. Further, the property stolen generally consists of brass utensils, trumpery ornaments, clothing, cash, or grain; and when the same pattern prevails throughout a province, the identification of the property is as difficult as the concealment of it is easy. Cattle-lifting is another common form of crime, practised chiefly by Ahirs, and this district has long been notorious for its prevalence; it is more frequent than would appear from the statistics of conviction both because of the difficulty of tracing the offenders, who remove the stolen cattle to great distances, and also because it is usual for the thieves to restore them for a consideration. Cattle theft is in fact recognized by the people as part of an organized system of levying blackmail; they frequently know to whom to apply, and hence a considerable portion of the cases which actually occur are not reported.

Disputes about land and irrigation are a fruitful source of offences against the public tranquillity; and violent breaches of the peace are common when the crops are on the ground or the reservoirs are full of water. With a large proportion of turbulent Rajputs and truculent Babhans, the people of the district have always been prone to this form of crime, and in earlier days such disputes led to desperate riots which were more like pitched battles. We learn from Twining's "Travels in India" that in his time the people of Chainpur and Sasaram had a great dispute about an immense embankment which the latter had made across a valley in their territory in order to amass water for their lands. Neither party, he says, being disposed to give way, the men of Chainpur determined to arm, and go in a body and possess themselves of the "bund" and

destroy it. The Khan of the city of Sasaram, a powerful and brave chieftain, was nothing loath to lead forth his dependants to oppose this aggression. Eventually, three thousand armed men on either side were assembled and preparing for battle; and a sanguinary conflict was only averted by a compromise effected by the Collector, who mentions that in a conflict which took place under his predecessor, a few years before, between the same parties and for the same object, four hundred lives were lost.

Police.

For police purposes the district of Shahabad is divided into thirty police circles; and there are ten outposts subordinate to the police stations. The force engaged in the prevention and detection of crime consisted in 1922 of the Superintendent of Police, with an Assistant Superintendent and a Deputy Superintendent, 17 inspectors, 59 sub-inspectors, 86 head-constables, and 609 constables. There is also a squadron of mounted police stationed at Arrah. The rural force for the watch and ward of villages had a total strength of 338 dafadars and 4,459 chaukidars.

Jails.

Besides the subsidiary jails, there is a district jail at Arrah and a Central jail at Buxar. The subsidiary jails at Buxar, Sasaram and Bhabhua are merely lock-ups; and in 1921 the daily average of prisoners was only nine, thirteen, and fourteen, respectively. At Buxar male prisoners are sent to the Central jail on conviction, and female prisoners to the district jail, as there are no female wards in the Central jail; in the other subdivisions all but short-term prisoners are sent to the Arrah jail, where on the average one hundred and nine prisoners were confined daily in 1921. This jail has accommodation for fifty prisoners under trial; and for sixteen juvenile, eighteen female and two hundred and twenty-five male convicts, with hospital accommodation for twenty-four prisoners. The Buxar Central Jail is the largest jail in the province, with accommodation for 1,160 convicts, and hospital accommodation for seventy-five. The principal industries are tent making, cloth weaving and the manufacture of uniforms for the Police and Jail Departments. The profits in 1921 were Rs. 58,784.

CHAPTER XIII.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

OUTSIDE municipal areas, local affairs are managed by the District Board which has jurisdiction over the whole district, and by the Local Boards which have been constituted for each subdivision. The District Board is responsible for the maintenance of roads, bridges and roadside rest-houses, and has the general superintendence of primary and middle schools. It is also entrusted with the management of pounds and public ferries, the control over dispensaries, the provision of a proper water-supply and village sanitation. To the Local Boards which work in subordination to it, have been delegated the administration of small sums allotted for the construction and repair of village roads and the discharge of certain functions which will be mentioned later. DISTRICT BOARD.

The District Board was established in 1887. It consisted in 1923 of twenty-five members, including the chairman, of whom six were officials, six nominated by Government, and twelve elected.* The Chairman is Raja Radhika Raman Prashad Singh of Surajpura. The following tables show receipts and expenditure under the principal heads for each of the last five years :—

(1)—RECEIPTS.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
TOTAL INCOME	5,84,251	6,50,179	6,89,213	7,38,532	6,69,700
Principal heads :—					
Local rates	4,79,088	5,23,277	5,42,657	6,02,740	5,44,260
Contributions from Government.	68,640	62,132	71,441	68,448	63,047
Cattle pounds	9,499	11,595	13,560	12,515	9,796
Ferry tolls	4,270	5,482	6,534	5,738	6,524
Railways	*Nil.*	7,394	5,194	5,872	6,321
School fees	4,900	3,509	3,096	3,623	3,852

* The constitution of the Board has been changed under the Local Self-Government Act of 1923. It will henceforth consist of forty members, of whom thirty will be elected.

(2)—EXPENDITURE.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
TOTAL EXPENDITURE ...	4,23,892	5,53,979	7,56,885	7,90,978	8,46,686
Administration ...	15,081	15,596	19,309	21,147	22,953
Cattle pounds	1,642	2,159	3,671	3,373	4,454
Education	90,839	99,233	1,03,416	1,21,874	1,42,963
Medical	55,158	77,894	96,302	1,02,011	1,11,296
Veterinary, etc. ...	8,399	5,026	10,488	15,707	16,701
Pensions	9,866	7,177	11,572	7,004	12,647
Stationery, etc. ...	2,291	2,821	4,449	5,739	6,764
Miscellaneous	2,224	2,061	1,885	1,768	2,005
Famine relief	330	...	32,330	18	...
Civil public works ...	2,38,062	3,42,012	4,73,463	5,12,337	5,26,903

The Board maintains 198 miles of metalled and 478 miles of unmetalled roads, besides 1,383 miles of village roads, the administration of all of which is vested in the District Engineer. The Board also controls 51 pounds and seventeen ferries, which are usually leased out. For the relief of sickness it maintains sixteen dispensaries and aids five others; when cholera breaks out in the interior it despatches medical assistance to the affected villages and takes measures to disinfect the worst of them, altogether 14½ per cent. of its income is spent on medical relief and sanitation. One of the Board's most important functions is the supervision of education, which is dealt with in Chapter XIV.

LOCAL BOARDS.

In subordination to the District Board are the Local Boards at each of the subdivisional headquarters, the jurisdiction corresponding with the subdivision. Two-thirds of the members of each board consist of members elected to the District Board by the electorate of the area over which the Local Board has authority, and the remaining members are nominated by the District Board.

The Local Boards were established at the same time as the District Board and receive annual allotments from its funds. They are entrusted with the maintenance of village roads, the upkeep of a certain number of wells and cattle pounds, the control of certain local dispensaries, and with the care of roadside trees.

There are Union Committees at Koath, Chainpur, Mohania, Jahanabad, Shahpur, Dehri, and Nasriganj, who deal with local roads and sanitation. Union Committees.

There are six municipalities in Shahabad, *viz.*, Arrah, Buxar, Bhabhua, Dumraon, Jagdispur and Sasaram. The Arrah Municipality was constituted in 1865 and the rest of the municipalities date from 1869. Buxar and Bhabhua retained as their official chairman the subdivisional officer in each town, until salaried servants of Government ceased to be eligible for this position, under the Act of 1922. All of the municipalities levy a tax on holdings of 7½ per cent., applied to the valuation of Government and public buildings; and a tax on persons, varying from one per cent. on incomes in Bhabhua to 1½ per cent. in the other municipalities except Dumraon, where the tax is levied at Re. 1-9-0 per cent. on incomes of under six hundred rupees, and Re. 1-10-8 on incomes of over that amount. MUNICIPALITIES.

The Arrah municipality consists of thirty members, of whom twenty-four are elected by the rate-payers. The number of rate-payers is 7,797. The following statements show the income and expenditure during the last five years :— Arrah.

(1)—INCOME.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
TOTAL INCOME	72,281	67,870	78,137	97,122	90,505
Advances, etc. ...	4,190	1,656	487	805	4,980
TOTAL RECEIPTS	76,471	69,526	78,624	97,927	95,485
Principal heads :—					
Rates and taxes ...	54,630	55,210	63,590	56,785	57,121
Cattle pounds ...	545	325	574	673	662
Hackney carriages ...	500	659	454	716	754
Markets and slaughter-houses.	5,815	6,122	5,960	6,311	6,046
Grants from Government.	7,840	3,344	4,852	11,963	4,462
Grants from Local Funds.	600	600	600	15,600	19,000

(2)—EXPENDITURE.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
TOTAL EXPENDITURE ...	58,292	73,936	70,395	81,655	87,165
Payment of debt ...	9,841	7,300	7,738	8,684	10,391
TOTAL DISBURSEMENTS ...	68,133	81,236	78,133	90,339	97,556
Principal heads :—					
Cost of Administration	7,180	7,222	8,262	8,910	9,215
Water-supply	9,000	15,500	13,050	21,074	21,698
Drainage—					
Capital outlay ...	1,011	5,360	436	3,501	618
Establishment ...	4,277	4,372	3,962	4,343	5,773
Conservancy	14,395	16,432	18,719	19,055	22,996
Education	4,859	6,179	6,742	5,282	5,517
Lighting	2,006	2,093	2,567	2,476	3,278

When the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal visited Arrah in 1891 he was impressed by its insanitary condition, and particularly by the need of a supply of pure drinking water. The town at that time depended for its water-supply on six wells, and most of them were condemned by medical authorities as unfit for drinking purposes. Year after year, as the rainy season came round, cholera broke out in epidemic form, and in each succeeding year with increased virulence. To remedy this state of affairs, it was decided to supply the town with filtered water from the Son; and the sum of nearly four lakhs of rupees was contributed for the supply of water-works. Of this amount the District Board and Municipality each contributed one lakh; and the late Raja Rajeswari Prasad Singh of Surajpura gave a generous donation of 1½ lakhs, the balance being raised by local subscriptions. The works at Bahiara were begun in 1893, and were opened about a year later. The water-supply of Arrah is now beyond reproach; but the town is not well drained or lighted : it resembles most other municipalities of Bihar in that its resources are not equal to its needs. The burden of debt under which the municipality has laboured for years is gradually being cleared off; in 1917 the debt amounted to Rs. 45,584; but five years later it had been reduced to Rs. 18,259.

Sasaram municipality, with 2,959 rate-payers, comes next in importance to Arrah. The municipal board consists of twenty-five members, of whom twenty are elected. The town has a large municipal market, which is an important source of revenue. The following statements show the income and expenditure during the last five years. Sasaram.

(1)—INCOME.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
TOTAL INCOME	32,349	47,792	36,315	31,839	33,016
Advances, etc. ...	5,722	6,593	11,318	6,860	9,351
TOTAL RECEIPTS	38,071	54,385	47,633	38,699	42,367
Principal heads :—					
Rates and taxes ...	12,771	14,004	12,681	10,341	10,585
Cattle pounds ...	897	1,139	1,098	1,400	1,070
Hackney carriages ...	42	26	13	30	...
Municipal market ...	8,005	5,575	10,825	9,513	9,550
Grants from Government.	2,193	20,378	5,629	3,219	4,002
Grants from Local Funds.	2,000	2,000	2,350	3,200	3,700

(2)—EXPENDITURE.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
TOTAL EXPENDITURE ...	29,761	33,180	61,513	34,761	29,967
Repayment of advances	5,731	9,475	7,386	7,040	12,905
TOTAL DISBURSEMENTS	35,492	42,656	68,899	41,801	42,872
Principal heads :—					
Cost of Administration	1,848	1,956	2,073	2,123	2,696
Lighting	1,307	1,587	1,802	1,727	2,362
Drainage	4,498	3,280	18,312	270	2,253
Conservancy	6,871	6,276	9,842	6,918	7,001
Hospitals	8,628	9,449	13,360	9,057	9,112
Roads	2,761	2,992	3,106	1,138	907
Education	1,978	2,301	2,838	2,743	2,083

Buxar.

The municipality of Buxar has 2,782 rate-payers; and the municipal board consists of ten members, of whom eight are elected. The following statements show income and expenditure during the last five years :—

(1)—INCOME.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
TOTAL INCOME	17,346	21,033	21,938	22,069	23,984
Principal heads :—					
Rates and taxes ...	10,531	11,632	12,077	11,842	12,977
Cattle pounds	326	457	238	209	281
Hackney carriages ...	219	241	172	144	162
Markets and slaughter-houses.	60	225	248	346	389
Grants from Government.	2,272	3,053	4,109	2,205	2,454
Grants from Local Funds.	2,120	2,000	2,350	4,261	4,550

(2)—EXPENDITURE.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
TOTAL EXPENDITURE ...	20,723	20,346	21,923	24,019	22,855
Principal heads :—					
Expenses of Administration.	1,092	1,132	1,327	1,261	1,423
Lighting	1,067	1,090	1,235	988	1,682
Drainage	...	306	405	580	401
Conservancy	4,245	4,968	6,962	7,754	5,127
Medical relief ...	9,449	7,491	6,733	8,796	9,685
Education	842	832	867	873	866

Dumraon.

Dumraon municipality has 2,689 rate-payers, and a municipal board consisting of ten members, of whom eight are elected. The area within municipal limits is only two

square miles. Annexed are statements of income and expenditure for the last five years :—

(1)—INCOME.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
TOTAL INCOME	11,365	13,404	14,101	15,610	13,935
Principal heads :—					
Rates and taxes ...	10,130	11,712	11,600	10,648	11,280
Cattle pounds ...	287	268	740	395	305
Hackney carriages ...	98	148	183	295	297
Grants from Government.	524	983	1,088	1,865	1,688
Grants from Local Funds.	...	...	...	2,000	...

(2)—EXPENDITURE.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
TOTAL EXPENDITURE ...	12,297	12,826	13,981	13,828	14,386
Principal heads :—					
Cost of Administration.	1,534	1,519	1,611	1,541	1,684
Lighting	1,632	1,301	1,257	1,821	1,695
Conservancy	4,950	4,696	4,964	5,106	4,961
Roads	772	2,146	2,464	1,178	2,403
Education	940	1,283	1,488	1,506	1,472

Jagdispur is a small municipality, with only 1,534 rate-payers and a decreasing population. Of late years some relief has been obtained by dispensing with the grant-in-aid from the District Board, and passing on to the Board part of the liabilities for medical relief and communications hitherto taken by the municipality. The cost of administration (clerical and collecting staff) absorbs over seventeen per cent. of the scanty income. The municipal board consists of ten members, of **Jagdispur.**

whom eight are elected. The annexed statements show income and expenditure during the last five years.

(1)—INCOME.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
TOTAL INCOME	8,289	8,677	8,778	7,680	5,587
Principal heads :—					
Rates and taxes ...	4,861	4,925	5,070	4,673	4,726
Cattle pound	173	183	232	230	297
Grants from Government.	605	840	848	2,751	529
Grants from Local Funds.	1,500	1,500	200	...	...

(2)—EXPENDITURE.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
TOTAL EXPENDITURE ...	8,745	8,311	8,749	6,046	5,162
Administration ...	1,017	1,036	1,270	1,058	1,119
Lighting	453	473	516	439	611
Drainage	320	161	135	137	128
Conservancy	923	1,024	1,212	1,270	1,266
Dispensary, etc. ...	3,057	2,859	3,062	819	312
Roads	1,390	1,108	752	619	260
Education	905	944	1,052	973	827

Bhabhua. Bhabhua is another small municipality, with 940 rate-payers, having ten members, of whom eight are elected. Statements of income and expenditure for the last five years are appended.

(1)—INCOME.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
TOTAL INCOME	9,632	9,505	9,394	19,393	13,327
Advances, etc. ...	3,861	3,197	2,674	2,637	3,855
TOTAL RECEIPTS	13,493	12,702	12,068	22,030	17,182
Principal heads :—					
Rates and taxes ...	3,156	5,433	4,487	4,352	4,430
Cattle pounds ...	305	484	459	719	550
Grants from Government.	4,126	1,263	1,135	10,563	818
Grants from Local Funds.	1,125	1,536	2,211	2,449	6,500

(2)—EXPENDITURE.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
TOTAL EXPENDITURE ...	8,768	8,471	11,479	10,109	10,456
Repayment of advances	3,264	3,286	2,506	1,999	4,369
TOTAL DISBURSEMENTS	12,032	11,757	13,985	12,108	14,825
Principal heads :—					
Administration ...	775	886	1,054	931	947
Lighting	509	503	626	867	758
Conservancy ...	1,882	1,278	2,671	2,188	1,617
Hospitals, etc. ...	2,660	3,117	3,956	3,911	3,500
Roads	323	89	243	474	106
Education	449	515	521	522	527

CHAPTER XIV.

EDUCATION.

Progress of Education.

THE earliest account which we have of the state of education in the district is that of Dr. Buchanan, who at the beginning of the nineteenth century found that though the persons of the Bhojpur family could read and write both Persian and Hindi, half the owners of land could do neither, and of the other half not above one-fifth part could do more than sign their name and guess at the meaning of a revenue account. Ten or twelve Hindu ladies had "acquired the dangerous art of reading and writing letters," and about twenty more could sign their name and understand an account; but he added, "these acquirements are considered by the grave as improper, and the childless widowhood of two ladies of Tilothu, who not only write a fair hand, but understand the poetical effusions of Tulsi Das, is attributed to the divine wrath irritated by their presumptuous search after the forbidden fruit of knowledge." Even by the year 1860 there were only fifteen schools with 569 pupils; but after 1870 there was a great extension of primary education, many indigenous *pathshalas* being brought within the scope of the departmental system, and in 1872-73 there were 5,133 pupils attending 315 schools. By 1883-84 the number of pupils under instruction had risen to 20,883; and though the attendance fell to 16,922 in 1892-93, it had again grown by 1901-02 to 22,962 pupils studying in 914 schools. Later figures are given in the following table:—

Class of Institutions.	1910-11		1921-22	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
For Males.	*I.—Public Institutions.*			
High Schools	6	1,637	9	2,028
Middle English Schools	6	433	13	975
Middle Vernacular Schools.	12	755	14	1,016
Upper Primary Schools	84	4,245	115	6,061
Lower Primary Schools	727	18,472	887	24,339
Special Schools ...	108	2,934	35	1,054
Total	943	28,476	1,073	35,473

Class of Institutions.	1910-11		1921-22	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
	I.—Public Institutions.			
For Females.				
Upper Primary Schools	2	86	2	134
Lower Primary Schools	14	257	66	1,366
Special Schools ...	18	298	...	...
Total	34	641	68	1,500
Total of Public Institutions.	977	29,117	1,141	36,973
	II.—Private Institutions.			
For Males	157	2,196	208	5,014
For Females	...	...	4	82
Total	157	2,196	212	5,096
Grand Total of all institutions.	1,134	31,313	1,353	42,069

It should be noted with reference to this table that most of the schools shown as special schools in 1910-11 were *maktabs*, or elementary schools for Muhammadans, which are now classed under the head primary schools.

Literate population.

The figures in the margin show for each thousand of the population the number of persons aged ten or over who have been returned as literate at the end of the last five decades. In 1911 the number of males aged five or upwards who were literate in English was 69 for each 10,000 of the population and in 1921 it was 95; for females the figure remained constant at 3. Shahabad thus comes just behind Gaya and considerably behind Patna in point of literacy for both sexes.

Year.	Males	Females.
1881	76	2
1891	95	2
1901	114	4
1911	123	5
1921	128	6

European education.

There is only one school in the district for Europeans, that maintained by the East Indian Railway for the benefit of its employees at Buxar; in 1922 it had four boys and nine girls on the roll. It receives a small grant from Government.

Higher education.

There are no colleges in the district; and students who wish for college education have therefore to go to Patna, which is only thirty miles distant from Arrah by rail. It is probable that sooner or later Intermediate classes will be added to the zila school at Arrah, and it has been suggested that the proceeds of an endowment made by Babu Har Prashad Das Jain of Arrah should be used for the purpose.

High schools.

There are nine high schools in the district. The Arrah Zila School is maintained by Government, and there are aided schools at Arrah, Buxar, Sasaram and Surajpura. There are also three unaided schools at Arrah and one at Dumraon; the latter is supported by the Maharaja Bahadur of Dumraon. There is as yet no high school in the Bhabhua subdivision, but considerable progress has been made in the direction of starting one at the subdivisional headquarters.

Middle schools.

The middle English schools are all under the management of local committees, eight of which receive grants from Government while five are unaided. Of the middle vernacular schools, thirteen are directly managed by the district board and one is aided by that body.

Primary schools for boys.

Nearly all the primary schools are of the class known as stipendiary. Under this system the school practically belongs to the teacher, who starts work in any place where he can obtain accommodation, however bad, and can hope to earn an income. In 1922 there were only twenty-three primary schools for boys in the district which did not receive some form of aid from public funds, but the sums given to individual schools are very small (in many cases only two rupees a month) and do not provide an incentive to regular work or for good men to enter the profession and remain in it. A better system is that under which schools are managed by committees to whom the district board gives its grant, for the members of these committees should at least be able to secure regular work. It is, however, difficult in most villages to find persons willing to serve on committees, though it is hoped that under the Village Administration Act many areas will possess statutory committees that can discharge these duties.

Special schools.

Under the head of special schools there are twenty-three Sanskrit *tols*, none of which are of any special importance; two elementary training schools in each subdivision maintained by Government; two *madrassas* or advanced schools for Muhammadans; a commercial school, and an adult

school maintained by the East Indian Railway for the benefit of its labourers at Buxar. Of the *madrassas*, the Khankah Madrassa at Sasaram has a considerable reputation and teaches Islamic subjects up to a high standard.

Primary schools for girls. The primary schools for girls differ but little from those for boys and are managed in the same way. Including girls in boys' schools there were 1,260 girls at school in 1910-11, 2,292 in 1920-21 and 2,132 in 1921-22. The number of girls in boys' schools is falling steadily.

The education of Muhammadans. The Muhammadan population of the district is 130,509 out of a total of 1,816,821, or 7·2 per cent. As the number of Muhammadan pupils is 5,632 out of a total of 42,069, or 13·4 per cent., the Muhammadan population is in advance of the general standard of education for the district.

Inspecting staff. The district shares with the rest of the Patna division the services of an Inspector of Schools, an Assistant Inspectress and a Special Inspecting Officer for Muhammadan Education. The local inspecting staff consists of a District Inspector, who is directly in charge of the middle schools and is the educational adviser of the district board, eleven sub-inspectors and an inspecting *maulavi*, who visits the elementary schools for Muhammadans.

Hostels. There are fifteen hostels in the district, of which eight are attached to the elementary training schools. The total number of boarders is 321. A large new hostel is about to be constructed for the Arrah Zila School.

Libraries and literary societies. There are five public libraries and literary societies in the district. The most important is the Nagri Pracharini Sabha at Arrah, which aims at improving the Hindi language. Two of the other institutions are public libraries at Arrah, but neither is of special importance.

CHAPTER XV.

GAZETTEER.

Akbarpur.—Population 2,037. A village on the banks of the Son, thirty miles south of Dehri, the terminus of the Dehri-Rohtas Light Railway. The village is situated at a short distance from the rocky precipice of Rohtasgarh; to its north stands Murli hill, two hundred feet high, consisting of limestone in thin strata. At the foot of the Rohtas plateau, there is a tomb of the kind known as *chardiwarrah*, built between 1636 and 1638 A.D., which consists of a four-walled enclosure containing a raised stone terrace and three prayer niches on the western side, with seven stone sarcophagi on a stone platform. Over the gate is a long Persian inscription recording the fact that the tomb was built for himself and his family by Malik Wisal, the *daroga* of Rohtasgarh, in the reign of Shah Jahan, when Ikhlas Khan was its *kiladar* or commandant. It mentions Akbarpur as one of the *parganas* forming the *jagir* of the *kiladar*.

During the Mutiny Akbarpur and the neighbourhood were infested by the followers of Kuar Singh, and it was for some time a centre of disturbance. In October 1858 the mutineers of the Ramgarh battalion, on being defeated at Chatra in Chota Nagpur, took up a position in Akbarpur, where they were joined by some of Kuar Singh's men. Here Captain Rattray attacked them with his Sikhs and sowars, and drove them with some loss into the jungles towards Rohtas. On this occasion the cavalry of Rattray's battalion, who had been deprived of their carbines on suspicion of being disaffected and were armed only with *talwars*, fought with such gallantry that their carbines were restored to them in recognition of the loyalty and courage they had displayed.

Akbarpur contains a charitable dispensary, a police station (Rohtas), and an inspection bungalow. Here are the ruins of

an old indigo factory, with the graves of the planter and his family in the compound. The house was used for many years as the inspection bungalow; but it has now fallen into ruin.

Arrah subdivision.—Headquarters subdivision of the district, lying between 25° 10′ and 25° 46′ N., and 84° 17′ and 84° 51′ E., and extending over 917 square miles. Its population was 627,795 in 1921, its density being 684 to the square mile, as compared with the district average of 417 persons; in the Arrah thana the density is as great as 782 inhabitants to the square mile. The northern part of the subdivision consists of the low lands marking the old bed of the Ganges, which are annually inundated during the rains; in the remainder the alluvial soil is of more recent origin. Out of the total area 743 square miles are cultivated, of which 340 square miles are irrigated.

Arrah town.—The headquarters of the district, situated in 84° 40′ east longitude and 25° 34′ north latitude, about fourteen miles south of the Ganges and eight miles west of the Son.

The population (1921) is 40,769. In 1901 the population was 46,170; but the town suffered severely from plague in the following few years, and in 1911 the population had fallen to 38,549. It is now again rising. The town was constituted a municipality on June 1st, 1865; there are 7,797 rate-payers, and the municipal board consists of thirty members, of whom twenty-four are elected. The town has a filtered water-supply from the Son. Arrah Junction railway station, 368 miles from Calcutta, on the main line of the East Indian Railway, is also the terminus of the Arrah-Sasaram light railway.

Legendary history.

General Cunningham * has identified Arrah with the place mentioned by Hiuen Tsiang as that at which Asoka set up a stupa to commemorate the conversion by Buddha of the demons of the desert who feasted on the blood and flesh of men. Even to this day, a legend lingers that this part of the country was the home of a powerful demon named Bakra, whose daily food was a human being supplied either by the village of Bakri or by Chakrapur (or Ekachakra †), as Arrah was then called. During their wanderings, the five Pandavas came to Chakrapur and were entertained by a Brahman whose turn it was to supply

* *See* A. S. I., Vol. III, pp. 72—79 (Calcutta, 1873).

† Ekachakra is mentioned in the Mahawanso as one of the capital cities of India in the time of Buddha.

a victim for the demon. Bhim Pandava, on hearing this declared that as he had eaten the Brahman's salt, he would go himself to the demon; and setting forth, he fought and killed him at Bakri, and then brought his body to Chakrapur. This myth is found in a more complete form in the Mahabharata; and General Cunningham considers that it must have been one of the time-honoured legends of antiquity which the Buddhists adopted for the glorification of their great teacher. The village of Bakri still exists in the near neighbourhood of Arrah, and though there are no ancient remains at either place, the Brahmanical legend of Bakrasur is, in the opinion of General Cunningham, so clearly identical with that of the man-eating demons described by the Chinese pilgrim that he accepts Arrah as the site of the stupa and lion pillar erected by Asoka. He further considers that the name of Aramnagar preserved in the modern Jain inscription at Masar was given to the town by the Buddhists when they adopted the Brahmanical legend ; Aramnagar meaning the city of repose or monastery city, as *aram* (repose) was the special term used by the Buddhists to designate a monastery.

Another account derives the name of the town from Aranya or desert; and an old temple standing between the old and new portions of the town still goes by the name of Aranya Devi. Various other legends, which have been devised to account for the name and which give more or less fanciful derivations of it, will be found in General Cunningham's article on Arrah in Vol. III Reports, A. S. I.

The Emperor Babar marched to Arrah after his victory over Mahmud Lodi and his rebellious Afghan followers. Local tradition still points to a place near the site of the old courts of the District Judge as that on which he pitched his camp and celebrated his assumption of sovereignty over Western Bihar; and it is said that the spot, which until recently used to be called Shahabad in commemoration of this event, was also the site occupied by the residence of the local *faujdar* who was in charge of *sarkar* Shahabad under the Mughal Emperors.

The defence of Arrah House.

A notable event in the history of the town is the defence of Arrah House during the Mutiny of 1857, when Arrah was the scene of a defence and a relief which will bear comparison with any of the achievements called forth by the rebellion. The outbreak of the sepoy regiments at Dinapore on the 25th July 1857 resulted in the flight of most of the mutineers across

the Son into Shahabad. Many of them were Rajputs of this district; and they found their leader in Kuar Singh, head of the Jagdispur branch of the Bhojpur family. His estates were encumbered, and he had everything to gain from a revolution; he enjoyed a greater feudal influence than even his kinsman of Dumraon, and when he rose in revolt, he drew to his banner the whole fighting population of the central part of the district.

The European residents had been duly warned of their danger; but the warning would have availed them little if William Tayler, the Commissioner of Patna, had not already sent fifty of Rattray's Sikhs to Arrah. Even with this reinforcement, the whole garrison were only* 68 in number; and their fortress was nothing but a small building, originally intended for a billiard-room, belonging to Vicars Boyle, the railway engineer, who, regardless of the jeers of his friends, had fortified and provisioned it to resist the attack which he had all along deemed possible. His dwelling-house (now the Judge's house) was about forty yards† off; and to deprive the enemy of the cover which it would have afforded, he had demolished its front parapet. He also demolished the high wall of his mango garden, which faced the opposite side of the billiard-room. The European women and children had already been sent away; and on the evening of the 26th a small band of Europeans and Eurasians, with one Indian Deputy Collector, went into the billiard-room and bricked themselves up. Boyle, whose foresight had rescued the others from instant destruction, was naturally one of the leading spirits in the crisis; and associated with him was Herwald Wake, the Magistrate, who assumed command of the Sikhs. Next morning the small garrison were standing at their posts behind their improvised defences; and when the mutineers, after releasing the prisoners in the jail and plundering the treasury, advanced to the attack, as to an assured victory, they were hurled back in astonishment and discomfiture by a well-directed

---

* The garrison consisted of nine Europeans, six Eurasians, three Indians and fifty Sikh Police. The names of the principal defenders are Messrs. Littledale, Coombe, Wake, Colvin, Halls, Fields, Anderson, Boyle, Dacosta, Godfrey, Cock, Tait, Delpeiroux, Hoyle, DeSouza, Sayid Azim-ud-din Hussain, and Jemadar Hukum Singh.

† The distance between the Arrah house and the dwelling house is stated by Holmes to be seventy yards; other accounts made it sixty or twenty yards. From actual measurement, it appears that the distance from the outside wall of the Arrah House to the edge of the verandah of the Judge's house is forty-four yards one foot. The dwelling house was until the present year (1923), occupied by the District Judge.

fire. From this moment they only ventured to discharge their muskets from behind the cover of the walls and trees that surrounded the house; and anyone who ventured into the open was sure to be struck down by a bullet from the garrison, who aimed securely from behind the sand-bags which they had thrown up on the roof. The assailants now began to try a succession of stratagems for the destruction of their foe. They strove to corrupt the fidelity of the Sikhs by threats, by appeals to their religious feelings, and by offers of a share in the plunder. But the Sikhs, confident in the resources of their commandant, were proof even against this last argument. Then the rebels tried to suffocate the garrison by setting on fire a heap of chillies outside the walls : but a favourable wind arose and blew the stifling smoke away. The same wind carried off the disgusting stench arising from the rotting carcasses of the horses belonging to the garrison, which the rebels had killed and purposely piled up round the house. Finally, Kuar Singh unearthed two guns, which he had kept hidden ready for emergencies, and prepared to batter down the little fortress. If he had had a good supply of ammunition, he might have forced the garrison to attempt to cut their way out; but he had no round shot at first (though he afterwards procured some 4 ℔. shot for one of the guns), and was obliged to use the brass castors belonging to the pianos and sofas in Boyle's house as projectiles.

The small defending force was now in a desperate plight; a relieving party of about four hundred men, who were sent by water from Dinapore, fell into an ambuscade when they had almost reached Arrah; and as time passed away and no help arrived, provisions and water began to run short. A bold midnight sally resulted in the capture of four sheep, and water was obtained by digging a well inside the house. A mine of the enemy was met by countermining. On the 2nd of August, the besieged party observed an unusual excitement in the neighbourhood. The fire of the enemy had slackened and but few of them were visible. The sound of a distant cannonade was heard. Before sunset the siege was at an end, and on the following morning the gallant garrison welcomed their deliverers—Major Vincent Eyre with 150 men of the Fifth Fusiliers, a few mounted volunteers, and three guns with thirty-four artillerymen.

The blockade had lasted eight days, during which the little band of Europeans and Sikhs had held out against two

thousand sepoys from Dinapore and a multitude of armed insurgents about four times as numerous. They were reduced to the last straits, and to quote Vincent Eyre's account:—"The relief of the garrison proved to have been most opportune, for their position had been so effectually mined that a few hours' delay must have ensured their destruction. The position which they had so miraculously defended against the three mutineer regiments, aided by Kuar Singh's levies, was a small upper-roomed house of substantial masonry belonging to Mr. Boyle, by whose skill it had been fortified and provisioned in anticipation of some such crisis. But the strongest position is of little avail where stout hearts and an efficient leader are wanting to defend it, and, in the present case, such hearts and such a leader were forthcoming. To Mr. Wake, as Civil Magistrate of Arrah, who possesses in a rare degree some of the highest qualities of a soldier, no less than to the unflinching fortitude with which his able efforts were supported by his brave associates, may be attributed the salvation of the garrison. During eight days and nights they were incessantly harassed, and so closely watched that not a loophole could be approached with safety. At one period their water failed, and they owed their supply to the prompt energy of the Sikhs, who, in one night, contrived with most inefficient tools to dig a well on the ground floor, twenty feet deep, whereby abundance of good water was obtained. During the last three or four days their position had been rendered doubly perilous by the fire of some guns of small calibre, which the enemy had mounted within fifty yards of the house, the walls of which were perforated by their balls in all directions. The defence of Arrah may be considered one of the most remarkable feats in Indian history."

Although martial law had been proclaimed in this district, Eyre left the execution of justice in the hands of the civil authorities, except in the case of certain native officials, who had transferred their services to Kuar Singh, and had been taken prisoners in arms against the State. These men were tried by a drum-head court-martial, composed of the Judge, the Magistrate and two captains, Eyre himself presiding over the court; and being found guilty, they were hanged as an example. The inhabitants of the city and its environs were ordered to deliver up their arms in camp within forty-eight hours, and long before that time had elapsed, a pile of seven thousand miscellaneous arms had been collected and broken up.

Buildings.

As the headquarters of the district, Arrah contains all the offices usual to such towns, as well as the offices of the Superintending Engineer, Son Canals, and of the Executive Engineer.

The church, and the offices of the Magistrate and Collector, the District Board, and the District and Sessions Judge, face the maidan, where there was formerly a race-course; but the maidan has been sadly encroached upon. Arrah contains few buildings of great archæological or historic interest. The Jama Masjid, a Saracenic building with four minarets and a quadrangle ninety-six by thirty-one feet, was erected in the time of Aurangzib. Like William Augustus Brooke, John Deane, who became Collector of Shahabad at the end of the eighteenth century, had a Muhammadan wife, by whom the Maula Bagh mosque was endowed. John Deane, after he left Arrah, became Commissioner of Bihar and Benares; he appears as Commissioner to have spent a great part of his time at Arrah; and when he died in 1817 he was buried in the outer garden of the mosque, where his tomb, carefully tended, may still be seen. The mosque itself is of the mixed Saracenic style with three domes and eight minarets. The Jains have several shrines in the town; three miles from Arrah at Dhanpura is another Jain temple, built in 1845, at which the troops halted during their march to relieve Arrah in 1857. A colossal statue of Vishnu stands in the garden of the Maharaja Bahadur of Dumraon, popularly called the image of Banasura, though it is probably of the Gupta period. This statue was brought here in 1882 from Masar, where Dr. Buchanan saw it. East of the Treasury on the maidan is a monument erected in memory of the men of the 35th Regiment who fell on the 23rd of April in 1858, in the disastrous attack on Jagdispur. The Church of the Holy Saviour contains memorial tablets of officers and men who died during the Mutiny; and an east window which was placed there by Mr. Harding, sometime District Judge of Shahabad, to the memory of his wife.

Baidyanath.—A village, six miles south of Ramgarh in the north-east of the Bhabhua subdivision, containing a modern Saivite temple built on a large mound, which was excavated in 1882 and found to cover the remains of an ancient temple. The ungainly little temple has been constructed from the materials of this old shrine, and is a medley of sculptures in every imaginable position, used haphazard in lieu of bricks or stones. On the mound, which, like the temple over it, is

literally built up of sculptures, an inscription of Raja Madan Pal Deva of the Pal dynasty has been found; close by are several sculptured obelisks and pillars; and round the village there are a large number of buildings dating back to early and mediæval Brahmanism. Baidyanath is believed to have been a centre of the kingdom of the Savars, and has been described* as perhaps one of the most interesting sites in India—not so much for its present architectural remains, but on account of its historical associations, as it is surrounded on all sides by numerous structural relics illustrating the earliest Brahmanical architecture of which we have knowledge.

Bhabhua subdivision.—The south-western subdivision of the district, lying between 24° 32′ and 24° 25′ N., and 83° 19′ and 83° 54′ E., and extending over 1,296 square miles. The population in 1921 was 297,986, showing a reduction of three per cent. since 1911. The Bhabhua thana, with 182 persons to the square mile, has the scantiest population of any tract in south Bihar, which is accounted for by the fact that it includes five hundred square miles on the Kaimur plateau. Out of the whole area of the subdivision 627 square miles are cultivated, of which 117 square miles are irrigated. This subdivision does not benefit to any considerable extent from the Son canal system, as has been explained above in Chapter VI, where the schemes which have been considered for its irrigation are mentioned. The Kaimur plateau in its western portion is plentifully supplied with large and small game; but the plateau is an unhealthy area for natives of the country at the base of the hills, chiefly owing to the lack of good drinking water. The principal objects of archæological interest are to be found at Chainpur, and on the Mundeswari Hill.

Bhabhua town.—Headquarters station of the subdivision of the same name, situated in 25° 3′ N., and 83° 37′E. The population (5,435) is apparently stationary. The town is connected by a good road with Mohania, where is the Bhabhua Road station of the East Indian Railway (10½ miles). Bhabhua was constituted a municipality in 1869; the municipal board consists of ten members, of whom eight are elected. There are 940 rate-payers. The town contains the usual subdivisional offices, a hospital, and a good inspection bungalow.

Bhagwanpur.—A village six miles south of Bhabhua, on the Shuara river, and on the road which runs from Bhabhua to Rohtas though Karar, across the Kaimur plateau. This is

* A. S. I., Vol. XIX, pp. 27—48 (Calcutta, 1885).

the seat of Kumar Chandra Sen Saran Singh, head of one of the most ancient Rajput families of the district. The family claim descent from the Rajas of Taxila, including king Porus among their ancestors, and describe how they migrated from Taxila to Fatehpur Sikri, and thence to Chausa and Chainpur. In the time of Sher Shah Raja Salivahana was head of the family, ruling the Chainpur-Sasaram country; he was killed and his property confiscated by Sher Shah. It is said that Babar Shah, son of Raja Salivahana, was re-instated in the zamindari by the emperor Akbar; and Babar Shah's younger son Jait Singh settled at Jaitpur, where his descendants still hold zamindari. The main branch of the family at Chainpur does not appear to have flourished; and Bhagwan Singh, great-grandson of Babar Shah, retired to the banks of the Shuara, where he built a town named after himself, and a mud fort suitable to his reduced circumstances.* Petty zamindaris were founded after this by collateral branches of the family which still survive, by Kenu Shah, younger son of Bhagwan Singh at Sabar, and by Pahlwan Singh, younger son of Durga Shah, grandson of Bhagwan Singh, at Ramgarh. The head of the family at Bhagwanpur was nominally zamindar of Chainpur; and in 1766 the fortunes of the family were temporarily restored, when the zamindari was definitely recognised and Chainpur was settled with Raja Arimardan Singh, grandson of Durga Shah. The estate was subsequently farmed out, the later farmers being Reza Quli Khan and Ahmad Ali Khan; but Arimardan Singh would ultimately have obtained permanent settlement had he not been in outlawry from 1785, when he murdered a neighbour and absconded. The family was again reduced to the position of petty zamindars, holding nothing beyond a few *malikana* villages; but its head was ordinarily styled Raja. Surajbhan Singh, father of the present head of the family, held the title of Raja as a personal distinction; but he encumbered the small family property so heavily that little now remains.

Bhojpur.—A village two miles north of Dumraon, in the Buxar subdivision. Population (1921) 3,605. The village derives its name from Raja Bhoj of Ujjain in Malwa, who is said to have invaded the district with a band of Rajput followers and subdued the aboriginal Cheros. There are remains of the ancient palaces of the Bhoj Rajas, which would probably repay the labour of excavation. During the seventeenth century,

* Eastern India, Vol. I, p. 459.

and until 1745, this village was the headquarters of the Dumraon family. The village gave its name to the pargana ; and the whole northern part of the district was commonly known as Bhojpur, and its inhabitants as Bhojpuris.

Bibiganj.—A small village six miles west of Arrah, where the Buxar road crosses the Banas river. This was the scene of a spirited action on October 13th, 1764, when the army under Hector Munro was marching from Bankipur to Buxar. When the advance guard under Major Champion came to the bridge at Bibiganj, a body of four or five hundred of the enemy's horse was observed on the opposite bank of the Banas. Major Champion immediately ordered the cavalry to charge, which was done without hesitation, the European Dragoons commanded by a young cadet named Surdal leading in gallant style. The enemy, after a slight resistance, turned and fled, closely pursued for nearly a mile, until they reached Harnath Kundi. Here the fugitives separated right and left, and a volley of musketry was poured in from a large body of the enemy's sepoys, who had been placed there in ambuscade for the purpose. This unexpected check immediately made the British cavalry wheel about and retreat in turn; whilst the enemy, reinforced by another party hitherto concealed behind the village, followed them up, and committed considerable slaughter. The Mughal Horse broke and fled in confusion in all directions; but the European Dragoons held better together, and served in some measure to cover the retreat. Mr. Surdal, who was a powerful man and an excellent horseman, performed wonders: after he had killed three of the enemy with his own hand, he was attacked by a Pathan covered with armour; in making a cut at this new antagonist, he shivered his sword to pieces upon the coat of mail; the blow was quickly returned, and Mr. Surdal saved himself by his dexterity, throwing himself on one side of his horse; but the pummel of his saddle was cut through. Before his enemy could recover his sword, the gallant young man had resumed his seat, drawn a pistol and shot him through the head, after which he effected his escape. Lieutenants Mair and Hessman of the Mughal Horse saved themselves by leaping their horses over a broad and deep wet ditch, a bold and sporting feat, which none of the enemy dared to imitate. * Major Champion drew up his two companies of Grenadiers on some

---

* Caraccioli, Vol. II, p. 50. Broome, p. 469. Surdal, who only attained the rank of ensign, was killed in the action of the 21st of January, 1769.

broken ground; but they were too far from the bridge to cover effectively the retreat of the cavalry, and the enemy were enabled to commit considerable slaughter among the fugitives. The losses on the British side were sixty of the Mughal Horse, twelve of the European Cavalry, and four Quarter-master sergeants.

In 1857 this place was again the scene of an engagement, when Vincent Eyre was marching from Buxar to the relief of Arrah. He arrived at Gujrajganj on the 1st of August, and bivouacked for the night outside the village. At daybreak the force again moved on and had just cleared the village when bugles were heard sounding the assembly ahead, and it was evident that the enemy had come out of Arrah to dispute his advance. They soon showed themselves occupying the wood in front, and large bodies were seen to extend themselves along the woods on either flank with the evident intention of surrounding the little force opposed to them. Eyre thereupon opened fire with his three guns and caused the enemy to screen themselves behind some broken ground in front. From this they opened a heavy fire of musketry, but galled by the accurate fire of Eyre's skirmishing parties, they gradually fell back to the shelter of the woods. Meanwhile, Eyre directed the full fire of his artillery on their centre; they scattered themselves right and left, leaving the road clear; and under cover of the Enfield rifles, the guns and baggage were promptly moved forward and pushed through the wood.

Emerging from this, the road became an elevated causeway, bounded on either side by inundated rice-fields, across which the baffled enemy could only open a distant fire. Finding their intentions thus frustrated, they hurried back to intercept the force at Bibiganj about two miles ahead, where they had effectually destroyed a bridge, and completely commanded the approaches to it from the houses of the village and the breastworks they had thrown up. Eyre sent out scouts to search for a ford across the river Banas, which separated him from the enemy, but no ford was discovered; and as it was plainly impossible to effect a passage over the bridge, Eyre determined on making a flank march to the nearest point of the railway embankment, distant only one mile, along which there was a direct road to Arrah. This movement was for a time masked by the guns, which opened a brisk fire upon the village; but no sooner did the enemy discover the manœuvre, than they hastened in great numbers to intercept the force

in a thick wood which abutted on the railway. On the way Eyre discovered a ford; but as his force had already passed it, he proceeded, followed up pretty closely by a large body of infantry and cavalry; while the three mutineer regiments pursued a course parallel to his own on the opposite side of the stream. On reaching the railway, it became necessary to dislodge the mutineers from the wood, from which they opened a very galling musketry fire. For a whole hour the force was hotly engaged at a great disadvantage, owing to the abundant cover which screened the enemy. Twice during this period, the mutineers, seeing the guns left almost without support, rushed impetuously upon them, and were driven back by discharges of grape. At this juncture, Eyre learning that the Fifth Fusiliers* were losing ground resolved on trying what a bayonet charge would do. Rushing forward with a cheer, the troops cleared the deep stream at a bound, and charged impetuously on an enemy twenty times their own number. Taken completely by surprise, the mutineers fell back in the utmost disorder, the guns opening fire upon their retreating masses, and in a few minutes not a man of them remained to oppose the passage of the force. Thenceforward an open road was available, which skirted the railway to within four miles of Arrah, where the force was compelled to halt by an impassable torrent. The night was employed in bridging this over, and next day the guns and baggage marched, without further opposition, into the station of Arrah; and the relief of the beleaguered garrison was accomplished.

Bihia.—A village in the headquarters subdivision, situated on the East Indian Railway, 382 miles from Calcutta. Population (1921) 1,223. Bihia is an important trade centre, but is best known for the iron roller sugar mills worked by bullock power which were invented in 1874 by Messrs. Thomson and Mylne, grantees of the large confiscated estate at Bihia which formerly belonged to Kuar Singh (v. Jagdispur). Some years elapsed before their great superiority over the rude machines then in use was recognized, and the inventors had to contend against wholesale piracy, but the popularity of the Bihia mills is now firmly established. The use of these machines as well as of countless imitations has become general throughout the province; and their introduction gave a powerful stimulus to the production of sugarcane and led

* The "Fighting Fifth" (Northumberland) Fusiliers.

to a great extension of the area under that crop both in this and other districts. Bihia was formerly the home of a branch of Harihobans Rajputs. According to their own traditions, they were originally settled at Ratanpur in the Central Provinces, but in 850 A.D. they migrated northwards to Manjha on the Gogra in the Saran district, where they waged successful war with the aboriginal Cherōs. Two centuries later they left Manjha and settled south of the Ganges at Bihia, and after a struggle lasting several hundred years subdued the Cheros who then held the country. In or about the year 1528 A.D., the Raja, Bhoput Deo, violated Maḥini, a Brahman woman, who thereupon burnt herself to death and in dying imprecated the most fearful curses on the Harihobans Rajputs. After this tragedy the clan left Bihia and moved across the Ganges to Ballia. The tomb of Mahini lies under a *pipal* tree close to the railway at Bihia and is visited by large numbers of women who come either to invoke her as a deified being or to offer oblations in commemoration of her. It is said that nothing will induce members of the Harihobans sept to enter Bihia, though it was once the chief seat of their clan and the remains of their ancestors' fort may still be seen there.

Buxar subdivision.—North-western subdivision of the district, lying between 25° 16′ and 25° 43′ N., and 83° 46′ and 83° 46′ and 84° 22′ E., and extending over 659 square miles. Its population in 1921 was 352,137, shewing a decline of eight per cent. on the population of 1911, with a density of 534 to the square mile. There are two towns in the subdivision, Dumraon and Buxar. Out of the total area, 503 square miles are under cultivation, 205 square miles being irrigated.

Buxar town.—Headquarters town of the subdivision of the same name, situated on the north bank of the Ganges in 25° 34′ N., and 83° 58′E. The population in 1921 was 10,098. The population has been steadily declining since 1881, when it was 16,498. Buxar, with other riverside marts, has suffered from the changes in methods of transport which have followed the development of the Bengal and North-Western Railway in the districts north of the Ganges, and from the tendency to make a distributing centre of each small railway station, rather than to bring goods into the old market town and to re-book them from there. Buxar has a station on the East Indian Railway, 411 miles from Calcutta; and there is here a considerable railway settlement. There are 2,782 rate-payers in the municipality, which was constituted in 1869; and the

municipal board consists of ten members, of whom eight are elected. The central jail here is the largest in the province.

Buxar is said to have been the home of many of the authors of the Vedic hymns and to have been called originally *Vedagarbha, i. e.,* the womb or origin of the Vedas. Local tradition derives the name of the town from a tank near the temple of Gaurisankar which was originally called *aghsar* or effacer of sin, but in course of time came to be called *baghsar.* The story runs that a *rishi* or sage, called Bedsira, having transformed himself into a tiger to frighten the *rishi* Durvasa of whom he was jealous, was doomed by the latter to retain that form for ever. He was restored to his original shape by bathing in the holy tank of *aghsar* and then worshipping Gaurisankar, and in commemoration of this event the spot was called *Vyaghrasar* or *Baghsar, i.e.,* the tiger tank. Buxar is an old Brahmanical site and various parts of it have ancient names such as Rameswar, Viswa-mitra-ka-asrama and Parasu Rama; but it has few remains of archæological interest. The most notable temple in the town is that of Rameswar Nath Mahadeo to which pilgrims resort from distant places. Legendary history.

Buxar is famous as the scene of the defeat, on October the 23rd in 1764, of Mir Kasim and the Nawab-Wazir of Oudh, Shuja-ud-daula. In this action Major Munro had 857 Europeans, 5,297 sepoys, and 918 Mughal horse, making a total force of 7,072 while the number of guns on the field was twenty-eight. The combined force of the enemy ten times outnumbered that of Major Munro, among them being the disciplined battalions of Somru and Madoc, with field pieces worked by Europeans, the powerful batteries of Shuja-ud-daula's artillery and the splendid Durani horse, with a number of Europeans of other than British nationality, who had deserted the Company's army in the mutinies at Sawath and on the Karamnasa which have been described in Chapter II above. The enemy's loss was very great; two thousand lay dead on the field, and more were wounded, while double that number must have perished in the Thori nala and during the pursuit. Major Munro's losses were 39 Europeans and 250 Indians killed, and 62 Europeans and 435 Indians wounded. A brief description of the campagin has already been given in Chapter II, and it is unnecessary to repeat it here. Until recently the battle-field was marked by no monument; but a memorial pillar has now been placed on the site. The battle of Buxar.

The fort. The fort of Buxar, standing on a high bluff above the Ganges and effectually commanding the reaches of that river, was long a position of considerable strategic importance. After this victory it passed into the hands of the British, and the land round it which now forms the fort bazar estate was acquired for military purposes in 1770. Both remained under the Commandant of the fort until 1840, when the bazar estate was handed over to the civil authorities; but the fort land remained under the military authorities as a cantonment until 1842, when it was handed over to the Stud Department. In 1873 the Stud Department was directed to give up farming and purchase grain and forage in the open market, and by 1875 all the land held by it had been handed over to the civil authorities; since that year it has been managed as a Government estate.

Chainpur.—A village seven miles west of Bhabhua. Population (1921) 2,545. Here stands the great mausoleum of Bakhtiyar Khan, a noble monument of Sher Shah's time. Local tradition asserts that his son married a daughter of Sher Shah, but there is no record of what part Bakhtiyar Khan played in the history of the Suri kings; he must have been a personage of rank, and Chainpur was probably his *jagir*. There can be no question, however, that the tomb belongs to the Suri time, as it is the exact counterpart of the tomb of Hasan Khan Sur at Sasaram, but of larger dimensions and with a small cupola instead of a pinnacle on its dome. Government has recently undertaken the conservation of the structure and has executed repairs necessary to preserve it from decay. Similar tombs of a smaller size are found in the neighbourhood, but call for no special notice. The Jama Masjid (1668-69) is a building of no special historic or architectural interest, but is regarded with great veneration by the Muhammadans of the place. The fort at Chainpur is surrounded by a moat and defended by a stone rampart flanked with bastions; from the style of the principal gate, which is the only portion now intact, it is evident that it is a building of the time of Sher Shah or Akbar. Inside the ramparts there is a small Hindu shrine, where a piece of stone is worshipped under the title of Harshu Brahm. In his Introduction to the Popular Religion and Folklore of Northern India, Mr. Crooke says that Harshu Panre or Harshu Baba was a Kanaujia Brahman, the family priest of Raja Salivahana of Chainpur. The Raja had two queens, one of whom was jealous of the priest's influence.

About this time (1527 A. D.), the priest built a fine house close to the palace, and one night the Raja and Rani saw a light from its upper storey gleaming aloft in the sky. The Rani hinted to the Raja that the priest had designs of ousting the monarch from his kingdom, so the Raja had his house demolished and resumed the lands which had been conferred on him. The enraged Brahman did *dharna*, in other words, fasted till he died at the palace gate. When they took his body for cremation to Benares, they found Harshu standing in his wooden sandals on the steps of the burning *ghat*. He informed them that he had become a Brahm or Brahman ghost. The Raja's family was destroyed except one daughter who had been kind to the Brahman in his misfortunes, and through her the family continues to this day. Harshu is now worshipped with the fire sacrifice and offerings of Brahmanical cords and sweetmeats. If any one obtains his desire through his intercession, he offers a golden Brahmanical cord and a silken waist-string; and feeds Brahmans in his name. It is said that this worship is spreading over Northern India and promises to become widely diffused [*see* Report, A. S. I., for 1902-03].

Chausa.—Village in the Buxar subdivision, situated on the East Indian Railway close to the east bank of the Karamnasa river, four miles west of Buxar town in 25° 31′ N., and 83° 54′E. Population (1921) 1,896. Chausa is famous in Indian history as the scene of the defeat of Humayun by Sher Shah in June of 1539. On learning that Humayun was leading his army back from Gaur, Sher Shah collected his Afghan troops, and having thrown up entrenchments on the banks of the Karamnasa river, he opposed the further progress of the Emperor. For nearly three months, the Mughal army remained in this situation, in a state of inactivity, neither daring to storm the Afghan entrenchments nor possessing the means of crossing the Ganges. Thus cut off from Delhi, the Emperor readily accepted the overtures of peace made by Sher Shah. A treaty was drawn out, by which Humayun resigned to Sher Shah the sovereignty of Bihar and Bengal, on condition that he would no longer oppose his march nor assist his enemies. This treaty having been duly ratified, much rejoicing took place in both camps, but especially among the Mughals, who exhausted by continual alarms, and exposed to constant rain and excessive fatigue, were anxious to return to their homes. But on that night after the treacherous Afghan had sworn by the Koran not to injure the Mughals, he suddenly attacked their

camp, and took them completely by surprise. Resistance was hopeless, and the whole army fled in confusion. Humayun himself escaped by swimming across the Ganges on an inflated *massak* or water-bag, which a friendly water-carrier provided; but eight thousand soldiers perished in attempting to follow him. The water-carrier, it is said, was afterwards rewarded for his loyalty by being permitted to sit for half a day on the Emperor's throne with absolute power.

Darauli.—A village five miles north-east from the village of Ramgarh, in the north-eastern corner of the Bhabhua subdivision, containing some remains popularly assigned to the Savars, the principal of which are two old temples with carved stone obelisks and a large tank, a little more than three-quarters of a mile long. From the character of the remains, Dr. Buchanan concluded that the Cheros had a temple here, which the Savars destroyed, and that the obelisks found were probably erected to commemorate its destruction. Later investigation has shown that temples and sculptures are clearly Brahmanical in style and conception [*see* Vol. XIX Reports, A. S. I., 1885].

Dehri.—Village in the Sasaram subdivision, situated on the west bank of the Son, in 24° 55′ N. and 84° 11′ E. Population (1921) 3,245. It has a station on the Grand Chord Line of the East Indian Railway and is a trade centre of some local importance. The Grand Trunk Road here crosses the broad sandy bed of the Son on a stone causeway 2½ miles long; and just below this the river is spanned by a vast railway bridge. It is made of iron girders laid on stone-built pillars and comprises 93 spans of a hundred feet each, its total length over abutments being 10,052 feet. This bridge is not only the longest in India, but next to the Tay Bridge (10,527 feet) is believed to be the longest in the world. It was opened in February 1900, exactly three years from the date on which the work was commenced. The chief importance of Dehri is due to the fact that it is the site of the head-works of the Son Canals, where the Main Western canal branches off from the anicut thrown across the main channel of the river. Dehri also contains workshops designed to construct and maintain the various works in stone, wood and iron which are scattered over the canal system. They are substantial stone buildings with iron roofs, and embrace a foundry, saw-mill, blacksmith's shop, fitting shop and a boat-yard. At Adampur, three miles to the west, is a small cemetery on the side of the Grand Trunk Road

containing the graves of a number of men of the 77th Regiment who died here in 1859.

Deo Barunarak.—A village in the headquarters subdivision, six miles north-east of Mahadeopur and 27 miles south-west of Arrah, containing two temples of considerable age. In front of the larger one stand four pillars of the Gupta style, on one of which is an inscription of Jivita Gupta (740 A.D.) of the later Gupta dynasty, which records the dedication of the temple to Barunarak. The shrine, although dedicated to the sun, now contains an image of Vishnu flanked by two small statues of the sun-god. The second temple also has an old pedestal of a statue of Surya, and evidently belongs to the same time; both are built of brick with very little ornamentation and are in fair preservation, though the spires are broken. Another interesting pillar of the Gupta period stands close to the temples. Its capital is square, and has on its four sides figures of Indra, Yama, Baruna and Kubera, the presiding deities of the east, south, west and north. Around the circular shaft are eight rather indistinct figures, which are evidently representations of the planets, as Rahu can be recognized among them [*see* Report, A. S. B. C., for 1903-04].

Deo Markandeya.—At Deo Markandeya, a village in the Sasaram subdivision, five miles north of Nasriganj, 37 miles to the south of Arrah and a few miles west of the Son near the Sasaram-Arrah road, there are three temples and three isolated lingas standing on a large mound covered with bricks. The principal one enshrines statues of Vishnu and Surya, of very crude fabric and probably of a late period. The second temple merely has an image of Surya; and the third, which is still a place of religious worship, has a linga with four heads (*Chaumukhi Mahadeo*). The inhabitants quote a Sanskrit verse which says that the main temple was built in Bikrama Sambat 120 (A.D. 63) by Gobhavini, the queen of Raja Phulchand Chero; and General Cunningham assigns the temples to the rule of the Cheros over Shahabad in the sixth or seventh century. Later investigation shows, however, that they are not very old [*see* Reports, A. S. I., Vol. XIX, 1885, and Report, A. S. B. C., for 1903-04].

Dumraon.—Town and municipality in the Buxar subdivision situated on the East Indian Railway, 400 miles from Calcutta, in 25° 33′ N., and 84° 9′E. Population 14,132. The town, which contains a charitable dispensary, veterinary

dispensary and high English school, is best known in connection with the Dumraon Raj, to which family it has given its name. The principal buildings are the palace and pavilion of the Raj, both excellent examples of modern Hindu architecture. The former residence of the family is said to have been destroyed by Mir Kasim Ali. Within the palace grounds stands a temple dedicated to Sri Bihariji, where great religious festivals are celebrated on the birthdays of Ram and Krishna, to which *pandits* are invited from all parts of India.

Dumraon Raj.—An estate covering an area of about 485,000 acres, owned by an old Rajput family, the headquarters of which have been successively Karur in *pargana* Danwar, Dawa in *pargana* Bihia, Bihta, Bhojpur, Mathila and Dumraon. They trace their pedigree back to Raja Bikramajit, from whom the Sambat era of the Hindus is reckoned; and 69 of their ancestors were rulers of Ujjain in Malwa. The founder of the family in this district was Santana Shahi, who is said to have settled in the village of Karur when returning from Gaya where he had gone to offer *pindas* in 1320 A.D. During the war between Sher Shah and Humayun (1534—1540), Gajpati, or Gajan Shahi and Dalpat Shahi, two rival princes of the family, joined opposing sides, and each succeeded in obtaining rewards for their services; Gajan Shahi receiving extensive *jagirs* and the title of Raja from Sher Shah, while Dalpat Shahi was made *mansabdar* when Humayun re-established his supremacy. During the reign of Akbar, Gajpati and his brother Bairi Sal defied the Mughal armies for several years; the rising of Dalpat Shahi ended in his defeat and imprisonment, but having obtained his liberty on the payment of a large ransom, he continued in rebellion under Jahangir until his capital was sacked by the Mughals. Raja Narayan Mal, who succeeded in 1607, was the sole proprietor of Bhojpur and Jagdispur till 1621, was granted the title of " Raja Mal Mansabdar " and was allowed to keep a body of seven thousand troops. On his death the estate passed to his brother, Raja Rudra Pratab Narayan Singh, who removed the seat of the family to Naya Bhojpur, where some remains of his palace still exist. This village remained the headquarters of the house till 1745, when Raja Horil Singh removed his residence to Dumraon; while his nephews, Buddha Singh and Udwant Singh founded the families of Jagdispur and Buxar. Horil Singh's elder son Chhatardhari succeeded to the Dumraon estate.

Bikramajit Singh, son of Chhatardhari, succeeded his father in 1770, and held the estate till his death in 1805, when he was succeeded by Jaiprakash Singh, son of Dostdawan Singh, Raja Bikramajit's younger brother. Jankiprasad Singh, grandson of Jaiprakash, succeeded in 1838, followed after his death in 1843, by Maheswar Bax, younger son of Jaiprakash. The last of the line of Chhatardhari Singh was Radhaprakash, son of Maheswar Bax, who held the estate from 1882 to 1894, when he died leaving a daughter, who had married the Maharaja of Rewah, and a widow, Maharani Beni Prasad Kuar who held the estate until her death. For five years until 1912 the estate was managed by the Court of Wards for the infant Jang Bahadur Singh, said to have been adopted by Beni Prasad Kuar before her death, under powers vested in her by Maharaja Radhaprasad. A descendant of Arimardan Singh, younger son of Horil Singh, named Babu Kesho Prashad Singh, who was male heir presumptive of Maharaja Radhaprasad, instituted a suit challenging the adoption and claiming the estate. The suit was ultimately settled by a compromise, by which Babu Kesho Prashad Singh paid ten lakhs of rupees to the infant claimant, and obtained the estate. The title of Maharaja Bahadur was conferred on Babu Kesho Prashad Singh in 1914; and in 1919 he was made a Commander of the Order of the British Empire.

Durgauti.—A village in the Bhabhua subdivision, at the place where the Grand Trunk Road crosses the Durgauti river by a suspension bridge. Here is a police station, a post office, and an inspection bungalow, while close by is the Durgauti station on the Grand Chord Line of the East Indian Railway. The road to Zamania, which was more important before the building of the railway line from Gaya to Moghalsarai, here leaves the Grand Trunk Road, crossing the Karamnasa by a temporary bridge in the dry season, and by a ferry in the rains. Sawath, close by, was the headquarters of the ancient police circle (thána), in which were included Mohania and Bhabhua. Here Jean Baptiste Tavernier halted on December the 15th, 1665, as he passed down the road from Agra to Patna; and here, from December of 1763 to February of 1764 were camped the armies of the Company and the Nawab Mir Jafar, when the mutinies occurred which have been described in Chapter II.

Garo-hat.—A Chero chief, named Manda, is popularly believed to have had his citadel at Garo-hat in the valley of the Katana seven miles south-west of Bhabhua. Various

ruins, tanks, reservoirs and the remains of brick buildings are found extending over an area of about 1½ miles from east to west and half a mile from north to south; and other works, also ascribed to the Cheros, stretch to the east and west along the northern side of the hills.

Gupteswar.—The caves of Gupteswar are situated in a narrow precipitous glen in the Kaimur plateau, about eight miles from Shergarh. The entrance lies a little way up the hill, and is about eighteen feet wide by twelve high; the mouth has, however, been built up into an archway on which are some rough paintings of figures. The first cave, a damp, slimy place with a slippery floor of rock, extends almost due east from the mouth for about 120 yards, with steep descents at the end. About half-way, a branch leads off to the south-east, which, after running ninety feet or so, rejoins the main gallery. A narrow passage again leads from this into the west end of a second gallery similar to the first, which is about 370 feet long. This latter, about 140 feet from its west end, is crossed at right angles by a similar gallery, the south arm of which is the largest, being eighty yards long. Stalactites are numerous, and one of them, on which water drips incessantly, is worshipped as the god Mahadeo. A fair is held once a year at the caves.

Jagdispur.—Town in the headquarters subdivision, situated in 25° 28′ N. and 84° 26′ E. Population (1921) 8,564. The town was formerly surrounded by dense jungle, from which the mutineers long defied the attempts of the British to dislodge them. This was the stronghold of Kuar Singh to which he retreated on the relief of Arrah; and as it was necessary to break his power effectually, Vincent Eyre resolved to follow up his victory and drive him from his jungle fortress. On the 12th August 1857 the enemy were found in strong position, having a river in their front, the village of Dalur in their centre, partially protected by earthworks, and in their rear the formidable belt of jungle which covered the approach to Jagdispur. The action was short but decisive. The enemy's right was concealed behind broken ground and low jungle; but as soon as Eyre located their position, he opened upon them with grape; and the men of the Tenth Foot following this up with a bayonet charge drove them panic-stricken into the jungle. Meanwhile the Sikhs, the Fifth Fusiliers and the Volunteers from Arrah held in check the mutineers left, consisting of Kuar Singh's irregulars; and as soon as a howitzer was brought up against them, they too

gave way, and a hot pursuit ensued, terminating only at Jagdispur itself. Kuar Singh had barely time to effect his escape in the direction of Sasaram, leaving his stronghold in our hands.

In April 1858 Kuar Singh, who had been driven out of Azimgarh by Sir E. Lugard, again made his way to the jungles of Jagdispur; and the officer commanding the troops at Arrah determined on an attack, before the enemy, broken and dispirited, should have time to recover his energies or make any efficient preparation for defence. Accordingly, with two companies of H. M.'s 35th, 140 strong, fifty European sailors and a hundred Sikhs, 5 artillerymen and two guns, he made a night march, arriving in the neighbourhood of Jagdispur before daylight. When day dawned he entered the jungles, into which he had not penetrated far, when, meeting with some slight opposition, he ordered a retreat. The retreat on the part of the Europeans degenerated into a panic flight. No entreaties of their officers could induce the men again to form and face their pursuers, whilst heat and fatigue did their work and proved fatal enemies. Man after man dropped from exhaustion; and out of nearly two hundred European soldiers and seamen who left Arrah, not more than 59 returned alive. Guns, ammunition, tent-equipage, etc., fell into the enemy's hands; but it is due to the artillerymen to say that they fought their guns to the last, and out of the five only one escaped. The Sikhs behaved with the greatest bravery, forming a rear-guard and covering the retreat; and perhaps it is not too much to say that but for them not a European would have returned to Arrah.

The jungle, which formed part of the confiscated property of Kuar Singh, was finally cleared by the present proprietors of the Bihia estate. Mr. Burrows, a contractor on the East Indian Railway, had been presented with the lease of the jungle, on condition that he cleared a certain portion within two years; but as it still afforded an asylum to the mutineers, more active measures became necessary, and Government offered six rupees for each bigha of land cleared by a certain date. With four thousand men at work, a broad path a half-mile wide was driven right through the jungle, while minor gaps were cut at right angles, rendering the whole accessible, and the further concealment of rebels impossible. The estate was rapidly developed by Messrs. Burrows, Thompson and Mylne, the grantees; a large number of wells were sunk; later the Bihia

branch canal was constructed through the entire length of the jungle *mahal*; and the estate is now one of the most prosperous and highly cultivated areas in the district.

Koath.—A village in the extreme north of the Sasaram subdivision, ten miles from Bikramganj. Population (1921) 5,352. The village contains a dispensary; and it is the head-quarters of an engineer of the Public Works Department. Here is the residence of the well-known Bilgrami family, descendants of Nawab Nurul Husain Khan, who came from the family home at Bilgram in Oudh after peace had been concluded with Shuja-ud-daula, when he received a large zamindari. Most of this was lost at the time of the Decennial Settlement, as has been described in Chapter XI above.

The village was the scene of Hindu-Muhammadan riots in 1893, and again in 1917, when a very plucky defence was put up by the Muhammadans on being attacked.

Mahadeopur.—A village in the extreme south of the sadr subdivision, ten miles south of Piro, containing the ruins of an old brick temple which General Cunningham considered the most curious specimen of brick architecture he had ever seen. It was 42 feet high, containing an upper and a lower chamber, and the top is crowned by a pinnacle of singular design, which in general appearance resembles two huge mushrooms one above the other. This pinnacle is similar to that which is believed to have crowned the fane at Bodh-Gaya, and the temple corresponds in many features with that shrine as it existed before its restoration [*see* Vols. XIV and XIX Reports, A. S. I.].

Masar.—A village six miles west of Arrah, which has been identified with Mo-ho-so-lo, visited by Hiuen Tsiang. The Chinese syllables Mo-ho-so-lo have been transcribed as Mahasara, and that this was the ancient name of the present Masar is proved by seven inscriptions nearly five hundred years old in the Jain temple at Parasnath. From the language of the Chinese pilgrim it appears that Masar must have been close to the Ganges and that it was inhabited by Brahmans who had no respect for the law of Buddha. This account agrees with the modern village, as though the Ganges now flows ten miles to the north, there are clear traces in the neighbourhood of the high bank of the old Ganges, and though there are no Buddhist relics, there are numerous images of Brahmanical gods. The remains at Masar are confined to these images, the foundations

of some small temples, and a Jain temple completed in 1819 A.D. The latter contains eight Jain statues, on which are seven inscriptions going back to 1386 A.D., when some Rahtor Jains of Marwar appear to have settled in the village; another figure of Parâsnath contains an inscription stating that the image was dedicated by Babu Sankar Lal of Aramnagar "during the prosperous English rule over Karusha-desa." This record, though modern (1819 A.D.), is of interest as it identifies the district of Shahabad with the ancient *Karusha-desa* of the Puranas, while the town of Arrah appears as Aramnagar, which is probably the true form of the name as handed down in the Jain books [*see* Vol. III Reports, A. S. I.].

Mundeswari.—The oldest Hindu monument extant in the district is the ancient temple of Mundeswari, which stands on the summit of an isolated hill, six hundred feet above the plain, close to the village of Ramgarh, seven miles south-west of Bhabhua. Externally and internally it has the shape of an octagon, with doors or windows on four sides and small niches for the reception of statues in the remaining four walls. The principal entrance was to the east, where a few pillars still remain which evidently once supported a portico. Inside the temple is a linga with four heads, and a statue of Durga, together with a large stone vessel shaped like a kettle and a stone chest which was probably used for hoarding the temple treasure. The windows were formerly filled with latticed stone work, which is still preserved in the northern one, round which are graceful carvings of the Gupta style. Till recently the shrine lay buried in debris and was overgrown to the roof with rank vegetation; it has now however, been cleared, and steps are being taken to preserve the essential features of the building. From an inscription found *in situ* we learn that the temple dates from 635 A.D.; it refers to Udyasena as the ruling chief and records various donations made to Mandaleswara, a name probably for an incarnation of Siva which was worshipped here. Several ancient statues have also been unearthed; and all along the eastern slope of hill various other remains are met with, such as small brick buildings, statues, rock-carved figures, and the names of pilgrims chiselled in the stone. From the relics still existing it is clear that the hill was once covered with a cluster of temples, of which only the main temple has survived [*see* Reports, A. S. B. C., for 1902-03 and 1903-04, and Report, A. S. I., for 1902-03].

Nasriganj.—A large village (formerly a municipality) in the north-east of the Sasaram subdivision, situated in 25° 3′ 15″ N., and 84° 22′ 25″ E., about half a mile from the Son, on the Koelwar-Dehri road. Population (1921) 5,332. Nasriganj is a large Government estate, forming part of the Nasriganj *mahal* which escheated to Government in 1867 on the death, without heirs, of the proprietress. With Hariharganj it is the seat of a large trade; and was formerly a considerable manufacturing centre. It has lost the commercial importance it possessed fifty years ago, when there were 21 manufacturers of paper and 42 sugar refineries; but it contains a large turbine oil, sugar and flour mill, and the manufacture of paper is carried on on a small scale.

Patna.—At Patna, a few miles south of Garc-hat in the Bhabhua subdivision, are a number of ruins attributed locally to the Savars or Suirs. The chief of these is a mass of rude stones, broken bricks and earth, 780 feet long from east to west and 1,080 feet from north to south, reaching in some parts to a height of forty or fifty feet above the ground. East of this again is another mass of similar length, but of smaller height and breadth; while north of the village of Srirampur is another elevation, consisting of stones, bricks and earth, and to the south is a circular mound called Baghban [*see* List of Ancient Monuments in Bengal, 1895].

Legendary history.

Rohtasgarh.—One of the most interesting places in the district is the ancient hill fort of Rohtas or Rohtasgarh, so called from the Prince Rohitaswa, son of Raja Haris Chandra of the solar dynasty, to whom the hill is sacred. Haris Chandra is the hero of one of the most beautiful legends of Hindu mythology. The story runs that Haris Chandra, a powerful monarch owning vast dominions, once went to hunt in a forest in which a *rishi*, Viswamitra, lived, and that while engaged in the chase, he disturbed the contemplations of the recluse. The hermit saint, offended at this intrusion on his retreat, resolved to punish Haris Chandra, and appearing one day when he was dispensing charity, induced him to promise to give whatever he asked. He then asked for his kingdom and all his worldly possessions; and the Raja bound by his vow at once fulfilled his promise. Thereupon, the importunate *rishi* demanded *dakshina* to complete the gift, and, in order to comply with his request, the destitute but pious Raja was obliged to sell his wife and son, Rohitaswa, to a Brahman; finally, as the purchase money was still insufficient to satisfy

Viswamitra, he sold himself to a Dom at Benares. The Dom placed Haris Chandra at the Manikarnika burning *ghat* with orders to collect fees from all who came to burn their dead; and shortly afterwards, Rohitaswa having died from snake-bite, his body was brought to the *ghat*. True to his master, Haris Chandra humbly demanded his dues, which owing to her poverty his wife was unable to pay. All that she could offer was the ragged cloth which covered her, and Haris Chandra then insisted on her giving at least a piece of this. At this moment, Viswamitra appeared, and, pleased at the piety of Haris Chandra and satisfied with his expiation, restored Rohitaswa to life and gave back his kingdom to his father. It is possible that this legend embodies in a mythical form an account of the early power of the aboriginal Doms; in East Bengal it is the belief of some Doms, calling themselves Haris Chandis, that, in return for their forefather's kindness, Raja Haris Chandra converted the whole tribe to his religion; and it is noticeable that the earliest traditions attached to Rohtasgarh point to its being the home and stronghold of autochthonous races. The tradition that Rohtas was once the seat of their race lingers among the Kharwars, Oraons and Cheros; the Kharwars call themselves Suryabansi and allege that, like Rohitaswa, they are descended from the sun; while the Cheros* claim that they held the plateau till they sallied forth for the conquest of Palamau. Similarly, the Oraons assert that Rohtasgarh originally belonged to their chiefs and was finally wrested from them by the Hindus who surprised them at night during one of their great national festivals, when the men had fallen senseless from intoxication, and only women were left to fight.

The only records of Hindu times connected with Rohtasgarh are a few short rock-cut inscriptions at various places on the plateau. The first, at Phulwari, dates back to 1169 A.D. and refers to the construction of a road up the hill by Pratapadhavala, the Nayaka or chief of Japila. Japila is evidently the modern Japla, on the opposite side of the Son, in the district of Palamau; and Pratapadhavala appears to have been a local chief, who is also known to us from two other inscriptions on the Tarachandi rock near Sasaram and Hindu period.

* The Cheros of the Vindhyan plateau claim descent from the Nag or serpent. As Buchanan quaintly puts it, they "claim the honour of being descended from the great serpent, who is king of hell, that is to say the devil, which is considered as a very ancient and honourable connection."

at Tutrahi, five miles west of Tilothu. From another short inscription at Rohtasgarh we learn that this chief belonged to the *Khayaravalavansa;* and Professor Kielhorn has pointed* out that this name appears to survive in that of the tribe of Kharwars. The only other record of Hindu rule over the fort is an inscription near the *Lal Darwaza*, dated 1223 A.D., which mentions a descendant and successor of Pratapadhavala, called like him Pratapa.

Muhammadan period.

In 1539 A.D., the fort passed from the hands of its Hindu rulers to Sher Shah, who at that time was in revolt against Humayun. The story current is that Sher Shah, having lost Chunar, determined to get possession of Rohtasgarh, and as the fort was impregnable, he was obliged to secure it by stratagem. He accordingly sent to the Hindu Raja who was in possession of the fortress, and begged him to allow his family and treasure to remain there while he was engaged in the conquest of Bengal. On his consent being obtained, Sher Shah sent several hundred *dulis*, in the first few of which were a few old women and in the remainder Afghan soldiers and a quantity of arms. On the arrival of the train at the outer gate, the leading *dulis* were examined, and when they were found to contain only the women, the remainder were allowed to enter. The Afghans then sprang out and attacked the guard, while the bearers used their staves until they obtained arms from the *dulis*. The guard were easily overpowered; Sher Shah, who was in camp close by, was admitted; and the Hindu Raja fled, leaving the Afghans masters of the fort.

During his campaigns against Humayun, Sher Shah left his women and children in this secure retreat; and throughout his reign it was held by a strong garrison of ten thousand matchlock-men, and was made the repository of "treasures without numbering or reckoning." Henceforth, Rohtasgarh is frequently mentioned by the Muhammadan historians, who dilate on its strength and advantages. The Ain-i-Akbari refers to its great circuit of fourteen *kos* and states that the enclosed land was cultivated and full of springs and lakes, while in the rains there were no less than two hundred delightful cataracts. From other chronicles we learn that the steep ascent was guarded by three gates, one above the other, defended by guns and rolling stones; on the summit were

* *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. IV, p. 311, Note 10.

towns, villages and corn-fields, and water was said to have been found in such abundance that if a peg was driven into the ground or a hole was dug, it welled up at once; in these circumstances, it is not altogether surprising to learn that the garrison had to be changed every four months.

Man Singh, on being appointed viceroy of Bengal and Bihar, selected Rohtas as his stronghold; he had the fortifications put in complete repair, deepened and repaired the reservoirs, erected a palace for his own residence, and laid out a handsome garden in the Persian style. When he died, the fortress was attached to the office of Wazir of the Emperor, by whom the governors were appointed. In 1644, the governor of Rohtasgarh protected Shah Jahan's family when that prince was in rebellion against his father. The fort was immediately under an officer known as a *kiladar*, who had a guard of four or five hundred men and defrayed all expenses from the revenues of the estates which formed his *jagir*; these estates were managed by the *diwan* who was an officer of considerable authority in the fort. Besides these, there were about four thousand matchlock-men, whose duties consisted in guarding different parts of the plateau; they were recruited from outside and had to be constantly relieved because of the unhealthiness of the place. The regular garrison consisted of artillery-men who were permanently settled with their families in a village near the palace and were inured to the climate; they were under an officer known as the *hazari* or commander of a thousand men. After the defeat of Mir Kasim at Udhua Nullah in 1764, he despatched his wife with seventeen hundred other women and children, and much treasure, to Rohtas; but shortly afterwards, on Mir Kasim's final defeat at Buxar, the Begum left Rohtas with the treasure and joining her husband at Tilothu accompanied him in his retreat.

Shah Mal, the diwan, then peaceably surrendered the fort to the English who advanced under Captain Goddard from Tikari. Captain Goddard remained there for about two months, destroying meanwhile all military stores; after which a guard remained for one year, when the place was finally abandoned. Since that time it has enjoyed a tranquillity broken only during the Mutiny, when Amar Singh and his followers infested the neighbourhood and several sharp melees took place. Finally, as it appeared that the mutineers

intended to hold the place in force and to use it as a rallying point, a levy of 250 men was raised to occupy the fort, and a garrison remained there till the end of the Mutiny.

Rohtasgarh is picturesquely situated on an outlying spur of the Kaimur hills, thirty miles from Dehri and 1,490 feet above sea level. To the left of the spur winds the valley of the Son with low wooded hills on its opposite bank and a higher range in the distance. To the right, the hills sweep round forming an immense and beautifully wooded amphitheatre about four miles deep, bounded with a continuation of the escarpment; and at the foot of the crowned spur is the village of Akbarpur nestling in the midst of undulating hills. The remains of the fortress occupy a part of the plateau about four miles from east to west, and five miles from north to south, with a circumference of nearly twenty-eight miles. It is separated from the table-land on the north by a deep and wide recess, called the Kariyari Khoh, a branch of which, Galariya Khoh, also separates it from the table-land to the west, leaving between its south end and the rock overhanging the Son a rocky peninsula or neck, about two hundred yards wide, with perpendicular sides. There are about eighty paths up the rock accessible to men, which were all more or less fortified; while strong defensive works were constructed at the four great *ghats* from which access to the summit was most easily obtained. The principal fortifications now existing are at Raja Ghat and Kathautiya, as the narrow neck joining Rohtas to the table-land is called. The latter was the most vulnerable part of the fortress, and the Hindus are said to have cut a moat across it as a defence against invasion. Man Singh still further strengthened the defences in 1607 by adding some massive works which are the finest remains of the fortifications still extant. These consist of two gates on the northern side of the neck about thirty yards apart with many winding passages and bulwarks attached; both they and the ditch are commanded by a double line of ramparts and bastions, which, rising along a low hill, tower sixty or seventy feet above the moat for a length of four hundred yards. Further to the north across the plateau ran another line of defences; but the only part now standing is a fine gate, called the Lal Darwaza, from the red stone of which it was built.

The palace.

The ascent from Akbarpur, which is the one most commonly used, is over dry hills of limestone, covered with a scrubby brushwood, to a crest where are the first ruined

defences; and this is succeeded by a sandstone cliff, cut in places into rough steps, which lead from ledge to ledge and gap to gap, well guarded with walls and an archway of solid masonry. Passing through this to the summit, a walk of about two miles leads to the palace, which was described by Sir Joseph Hooker as follows: "The buildings are very extensive and bear evidence of great beauty in the architecture; light galleries supported by slender columns, long cool arcades, screened squares and terraced walks are the principal features. The rooms open out upon flat roofs commanding views of the long endless table-land to the west and a sheer precipice of a thousand feet on the other side, with the Son, the amphitheatre of hills and the village of Akbarpur below." This estimate of the architectural merits of the palace is somewhat high, as the buildings cannot compare with relics of the same period in other parts of India; but they are of unique interest as being the only specimen of Mughal civil architecture in Bihar, and as affording a striking example of the conditions of military life under that empire. The palace is an irregular medley of buildings extending from north to south, and is entered from the west through a great courtyard enclosed by high walls. On the inner side of this courtyard were the quarters which served as barracks for the troops; and at its north-eastern corner is the chief gate of the palace. This consists of a massive arch flanked on either side by the figure of an elephant carved in stone, from which it derives the name of Hathiya Pol or the elephant gate; an inscription over the arch records that it was erected in 1597 by Man Singh. It opens on to a large vaulted guard-room, passing through which one comes to the Barahduari, the best preserved structure in the palace, which is believed to have been used by the viceroy as his hall of audience. In front is an open verandah, supported by four double columns, which leads into a large hall with a vaulted roof overlooked by a corridor running along its entire length. Staircases at either side lead to the rooms on the upper floor, and to the flat roof which is crowned by small cupolas. Towards the centre of the palace is the Aina Mahal, the residence of the governor's chief wife, which stands in the middle of what was once Man Singh's Persian garden. Of the other buildings, the most imposing is the *Takht Padshahi*, or Governor's residence, which rises to the height of four stories and is crowned with a graceful cupola. On the second floor are a handsome hall and gallery supported by solid pillars with carved cornices; on the third floor a small

cupola leads to a covered balcony overlooking the terraced roof of the ladies' apartments; while the topmost cupola gives a magnificent view of the surrounding country and commands the whole palace area.

Other buildings.

Scattered over the plateau are the remains of various buildings, two only of which can be attributed to the time of Sher Shah, viz., the Jama Masjid or Alamgiri Masjid, a mosque with three domes, and the large mausoleum of Habsh Khan, generally known as the *rauza* of Hawas Khan; the latter building, which in style resembles the monument of Hasan Khan at Sasaram, is possibly the tomb mentioned by Buchanan as that of the *daroga* or superintendent of works of Sher Shah. In front of this stands a mosque built in 1580 by an eunuch bearing the same name, and close by there are a number of tombs also dating from Mughal times. The most interesting of these is the tomb of Shafi Sultan (1578), who died suddenly, when he was expecting to be promoted to the rank of Khan. It has some fine stucco ornamentation, and, like several of the other tombs, is covered by a dome supported on pillars. Similar structures are frequently met with in Rajputana, where they are called Chattris; and evidently this style of building, which is never found in Bengal proper, was introduced by the garrison of the fort, who were largely recruited from Rajputana. A similar importation from the north-west is the octagonal open pillared hall covered by hemispherical dome, which stands in front of some of the Hindu temples found on the plateau. The most picturesquely situated of all these temples is the Rohtasan, or temple of Rohitaswa. It stands at the edge of the precipice on a small peak at the north-eastern corner of the plateau and is approached by a long flight of eighty-four steps; little of this temple now remains, and the tower and *mandapa* which once formed part of it have long since disappeared. The image of Rohitaswa is said to have been worshipped here until it was destroyed by the iconoclastic zeal of Aurangzeb, who erected a small brick mosque just behind it: the latter was a wretched building which has recently been demolished. Close by the temple of Rohitaswa stands the shrine sacred to his father Haris Chandra, a graceful building consisting of a small pillared hall covered with five domes, the image formerly worshipped here was also removed by Aurangzeb.

At a little distance from the palace, at the head of a great ravine on the western side of the plateau, is a cave overlooking

a sheer precipice about a thousand feet high. A Muhammadan saint is said to be buried here, and local legend relates that he was thrice thrown down the precipice bound hand and foot, but each time reappeared unhurt. At the foot of the plateau there is a large tomb with a long Persian inscription over the gate, which states that when the hill fortress was erected (1638) Ikhlas Khan was its *kiladar* with the rank of a commander of three thousand, and *faujdar* of Makrai and the *parganas* of Siris and Benares, and that his *jagir* consisted of the *parganas* of Jiwand, Sakror, Tilothu, Akbarpur, Belaunja and Japla. The *parganas* mentioned lie in the modern districts of Shahabad, Gaya, Palamau and Benares (*see* also Eastern India, Vol. I, 1838; Reports, A. S. B. C., for 1901-02 and 1903-04, and Report, A. S. I., for 1902-03).

Sasaram subdivision.—South-eastern subdivision of the district, lying between 24° 31′ and 25° 22′ N., and 83° 0′ and 84° 27′ E., and extending over 1,481 square miles. Its population was 538,903 in 1921 against 544,374 in 1911, the density of population being 363 persons to the square mile. The Kaimur hills in the south afford little space for cultivation, and this part of the subdivision suffered severely in the famine of 1896-97. Altogether 854 square miles are under cultivation, of which 434 square miles are irrigated. The subdivision contains one town Sasaram, its headquarters, and 1,906 villages, one of which, Dehri, is important as the site of the headquarters of the Son canal system. There are old forts at Shergarh and Rohtasgarh, and Sasaram itself contains antiquities of great interest.

Sasaram town.—Headquarters town of the subdivision of the same name, situated on the Grand Trunk Road at the 350th mile from Calcutta, in 24° 57′ N. and 84° 1′ E. There is here a station on the Grand Chord line of the East Indian Railway, and the terminus of the Arrah-Sasaram railway. The population (1921) is 22,308, which shows a slight decline from the population of 1911 (23,097). Of the existing population, 12,884 are Hindus and 8,886 are Muhammadans; 535 Sikhs account for practically the whole of the balance. The full name of Sasaram (Sahasram) is said to be Shasra Arjanpura, because the thousand-armed Haihaya Chief Arjuna died here. His thousand arms are said to have been cut off by Parasu Rama, when he fled with all his followers to this place. Here he died, and his followers gave his name to the

town which they had built. The town lies about sixty miles from Arrah and commands a fine view of the north escarpment of the Kaimur hills, two miles distant to the south. It is about a mile in diameter and consists of a mass of old brick houses closely packed along narrow lanes.

During the Mutiny Sasaram was a centre of disturbance. In August 1858 it was attacked and plundered by a body of rebels from Arrah; and the part played by the people in driving this force away was recognized by Government in officially giving the town the title of Sasaram Nasir-ul-hukkam, i.e., Sasaram the loyal town, while Shah Karbir-ud-din, the Sajjada-nashin, who was their recognized leader and who loyally supported Government through the crisis, was rewarded with a *khilat* of Rs. 10,000 and a *sanad* under the seal and signature of the Governor-General. Amar Singh and his followers infested the neighbourhood, and a large British force had to be stationed in the town in order to meet marauding parties, to secure the tranquillity of the south of the district, and to keep open communications along the Grand Trunk Road by which the troops were marching to the north. It was for some time the headquarters of an independent command composed of two or three hundred European soldiers with seventy artillerymen and four 9-pounder guns, besides a levy, two hundred and fifty strong, which had been raised for the occupation of Rohtasgarh. The inhabitants still point to a rising knoll to the north of the town where those rebel leaders who were captured were executed; and the cemetery close by at Koraich contains a number of graves of European soldiers who died here during the Mutiny.

Monuments.

The most ancient monument at Sasaram is an Asoka inscription, inside a small cave near the top of Chandan Pir's hill to the east of the town. The inscription, which is referred either to the year 232 or 231 B.C., the last year of the aged Emperor's life, probably contains a date referring to the death of Buddha; but no convincing interpretation* of it has yet been found: other versions of the same edict exist at Rupnath in Central India, at Bairat near Jaipur, and at Siddapur in the Mysore State. The hill where the inscription is found was evidently an old Buddhist site, which appears to have been appropriated later on by the Muhammadans. The latter call

* See, however, "Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. I, p. 130, Asoka, p. 138, by Vincent A. Smith, and Early History of India, p. 154, by the same author.

the cave the *chiragdan* or lamp of the saint, Chandan Pir, whose *dargah* is on the summit of the hill; they know nothing, however, of his life and history, although they insist upon his being called Shahid, or martyr, and worship at his tomb. General Cunningham, however, quotes a legend which seems to have been suggested by that of Sahasra Arjun. According to this story a Muhammadan saint living at Benares had his head cut off by a Hindu named Chandan, and fled away without his head till he reached Sasaram. Here he asked a woman for some betel to eat, but she replied: "What is the use of giving you betel when your head is gone?" On this, the holy man at once dropped down dead. A small building close to the *dargah* was erected by a tobacco-seller in 1804, and at the foot of the hill is a ruined mosque of the time of Jahangir (1613 A.D.). On the Tarachandi rock, one mile to the south, is an inscription of Pratapadhavala engraved on the rock close by the figure of Chandi Devi.

Tomb of Sher Shah.

The magnificent mausoleum of Sher Shah inside the town and the smaller one of his father, Hasan Khan Sur, east of it, are among the most important ancient monuments in the province. The former, which is one of the noblest specimens of Pathan architecture in India, is an imposing structure of stone, standing in the middle of a fine tank about a thousand feet square and rising from a large stone terrace. This terrace, which is thirty feet high and three hundred feet square, rests on a large stone platform with a flight of steps leading to the water's edge, and, for some unknown reason, was not built squarely upon it, but placed obliquely to its sides. The following description * of the tomb gives an account of the building as it existed between 1780-83: "The plan of this mausoleum is a square base, rising from the centre of the lake, having at each angle pavilions crowned with domes and finished with a cullus; from this base was a bridge that, from the ruins now remaining, must have consisted of six pointed arches which communicated to the side of the lake, and on two sides are a double flight of steps to the water; on the base is raised an octagon building, having three pointed arches in each face, and on each angle are pavilions finished like the former. Somewhat behind this runs an octagon ninety-two feet in diameter, and from the extremes spring the dome, which is finished on the top by a small pavilion, like those already described." When Buchanan saw the tomb,

* Travels in India during 1780-83, by William Hodges, R.A., London, 1793.

the only means of access to it was a raft made of a bamboo frame-work supported by earthen pots; and the dome was crowned by a small cupola resting on four pillars. When the building was restored by Government in 1882, this cupola was pulled down and replaced by a pinnacle similar to that on Hasan Khan Sur's tomb; and a causeway, three hundred and fifty feet long, was built to connect the tomb with the northern side of the tank.

Mounting from the causeway to the terrace, the building is entered through a wide verandah, running all round the building with three arches on each side. The interior of the tomb consists of a large octagonal hall surrounded by an arcade of Gothic arches, from which springs a second octagonal storey, and above this rises the dome with a span of seventy-two feet. The grave of Sher Shah lies in the centre with the right side turned towards Mecca, and is distinguished from the other graves near it by a small column placed at its head; the latter are ranged in two rows at its foot, and are said to belong to the Emperor's favourite officers. The hall is lighted by a series of windows above the verandah filled with stone tracery, and the Mecca niche is richly ornamented with passages from the Koran carved in stone. Two broad terraces, at each corner of which are cupolas supported on stone columns, lead round the building, the first being over the verandah and the second at the base of the dome. Traces of coloured enamelled tiles still exist on the domes of the different kiosques and the walls of the tomb. Its height from the floor to the apex of the dome is one hundred and one feet and its total height above the water is over one hundred and fifty feet; the octagon forming the tomb has an interior diameter of seventy-five feet and an exterior diameter of one hundred and four feet. The tomb is remarkable for the great span of its dome, which is thirteen feet wider than the dome of the Taj Mahal; and for grandeur and dignity it is quite unequalled in northern India. The architecture is predominantly Saracenic in character; but the influence of Hindu architecture is distinctly to be seen in the design.

Tomb of Hasan Khan Sur.

In the centre of the town is the mausoleum of Hasan Khan Sur, the father of the Emperor (1538 A.D.). It stands in a large courtyard, enclosed by a high wall of cut stone with towers at the four corners and a gateway to the east. The tomb consists of an octagonal hall surmounted by a large dome and is surrounded by an arcade with three Gothic arches

on each side. This arcade is crowned on each side by three small domes and is richly ornamented with plaster engraved with sentences from the Koran; above it is a terrace running round the basement of the dome with a pillared kiosque at each angle. The tomb was once adorned with glazed pottery and profuse stucco ornamentation, but few traces of these are left.

Tomb of Salim Shah.

In the middle of a large tank, about half a mile to the north-west of Sher Shah's tomb, is situated the tomb of his son, the Emperor Salim Shah, where his body was brought from Gwalior (1553 A.D.). The building was never completed, and all that can be seen is an octagonal-shaped building, about ten or fifteen feet high, with some of the arches turned. In the centre of the building is the grave of Sálim Shah; on its left is a second grave, and at its foot five others of smaller size, the whole being surrounded by a wall about seven feet high, rudely built of rough stones and clay. Probably the body of Salim Shah was deposited here in state to wait for the completion of the tomb; but owing to the downfall of his family the building was never finished. Enough remains, however, to show that it was intended to construct a large octagonal hall, one hundred and forty feet in diameter, covered with a dome and surrounded by an arcade, while at each corner was an octagonal projection on which kiosques or minarets would have been erected. Perhaps the most striking part of the remains is a stone bridge, of trabeate construction, connecting the island with the southern side of the tank; it consists of eleven spans crossed by large stone slabs laid from abutment to abutment and has ten small balconies projecting from each side, which would have been crowned with cupolas, had the design been carried out.

Tomb of Alawal Khan.

Outside the town to the south is the ruined tomb of Alawal Khan who, according to local tradition, was the officer in charge of the building of Sher Shah's mausoleum and took advantage of his position to appropriate the finest stone for his own tomb. The eastern and western walls, which are surmounted by cupolas are in fair preservation, and the principal door has some fine carving round it.

Other buildings.

The only other buildings in Sasaram worthy of mention are the building known as the *Kila*, the Idgah and the Turkish bath. The former is popularly supposed to be the old house of Hasan Khan Sur, and though in a ruinous state is a fine building. The Idgah near Sher Shah's tomb was built by

Mujahid Khan in the time of Shah Jahan (1633—1636 A.D.). The Turkish bath, which, like the tombs of Sher Shah and Hasan Khan Sur, is maintained by Government, is ascribed by local tradition to the time of Sher Shah. Mr. Twining, who was Collector of Shahabad at the beginning of the 19th century, alludes to the bath as the old imperial bath and states that it is decorated with mosaic, similar to that of Delhi and Agra, composed of cornelians from the Son: no traces of this mosaic are left. The bath was constantly used by travellers along the Grand Trunk Road before the construction of the railway; and an old visitors' book contains record of their appreciation of it.*

The *khankah*.

Sasaram contains an important religious endowment in the *khankah*,† which was founded early in the 18th century by a devout Muhammadan, named Sheikh Kabir Darwesh, the ancestor of the present Sajjada-nashin, or superior of the institution. It was endowed in the year 1717 A.D. by the Emperor Farrukhsiyar with eighteen villages, given rent-free and producing the computed income of a lakh of *dams*, or about Rs. 940 a year, "on account of the expenses of the *khankah*" without further specification. In the year 1762 A.D., the Emperor Shah Alam added forty-one villages, producing three thousand rupees a year, also assigned free of revenue "to the holy saint Sheikh Zia-ud-din for the expenses of travellers and comers." There were also some gifts of smaller value made to the superior of the *khankah* for the time being by authorities inferior to the Emperor, but claiming the right to exempt land from the public revenue. The validity of the proceedings purporting to make the assigned villages revenue-free was examined by the resumption authorities in 1836, with the result that the order of Farrukhsiyar was declared to be good, while that of Shah Alam was found to be of no force, inasmuch as possession of the land assigned by it was not obtained until after the establishment of the Company's administration, when Shah Alam's right to make such gifts had passed away. No revenue was, however, assessed, on the ground that the lands were attached to a useful institution, which was declared by Government to be of a charitable character. The grants of the subordinate

* *See* Reports, A. S. I., Vol. XI; List of ancient monuments in Bengal, 1895; and Report, A. S. B. C., for 1901-02.

† Report of the Muhammadan Educational Endowments Committee, 1888.

rulers were likewise approved, except in two instances in which the exemption from revenue being declared invalid, the land tax was assessed at half the usual rate.

As to the nature of the institution for the support of which this provision was primarily made, it has been ruled by the Calcutta High Court that the *khankah* is a religious foundation, being a place in which persons exclusively devoted to a spiritual life reside and carry on their pious exercises. It includes a mosque, where customary ceremonies are performed at certain festivals, and the tombs of devout persons at which prescribed observances are followed; and arrangements are made for teaching religious books and for distributing alms to the poor.

Local agents for the control of the endowment under Regulation XIX of 1810 are mentioned at an early period, but it appears that if any were appointed in addition to the Collector, who held the position *ex-officio*, they never enjoyed real power, as in 1842 we find the Sajjada-nashin altogether denying their authority, on the ground that the institution was of a private character. In that year Government insisted on the existence of the right to supervise, but directed that its exercise should be confined to the land granted by Shah Alam, about half the whole, the rest being left to the Sajjada-nashin, without control or interference, as his personal remuneration for the duties performed by him. This arrangement did not work well, owing to friction between the local agents and the Superior, and in 1849 Government definitely withdrew from all connection with the endowment, reserving only the right to intervene in the event of any future abuse or misappropriation. Attention was again drawn to the matter in 1865, when there was a dispute as to the succession, and the Board of Revenue, to whom the Collector referred the question whether the secular portion of the endowment should not be separated from the religious under Act XX of 1863, decided that the endowment was exclusively secular, and re-appointed local agents to exercise supervision under Regulation XIX of 1840. These local agents assumed a hostile attitude towards the Superior, Shah Mohi-ud-din Ahmed, who openly challenged their assumption of authority as illegal, and also offered an irritating opposition in detail to every attempt at interference. The Board in 1868 passed rules for his guidance, regulating how much he should spend on each branch of the endowment, such as education, alms and religious

ceremonies; but in 1870 they greatly modified these rules, on the ground that in their original form they deprived him of all initiative. On the rules being changed, the members of the Committee resigned, but not before they had sent in a report accusing the Superior of mismanagement. New agents were appointed, who in 1875, after a protracted conflict with the Superior and after an investigation at which he declined to be present, reported that he was guilty of misfeasance, in neglecting the rules laid down by the Board. On this finding, Government dismissed Shah Mohi-ud-din from his office.

From 1875 to 1884 the endowment was practically managed by Government through the Collector as local agent. Under this system very satisfactory results were obtained. A cadastral survey was made of the estate, a record-of-rights was prepared for the protection of the raiyats, the system of management by middlemen was abolished, and the income was thus greatly increased without raising the cultivators' rents. A fine stone building was erected for the Madrasa, which was raised to the first position in its class and affiliated to the Calcutta Madrasa; a new dispensary was also erected, and charitable works generally were prosecuted with vigour. The religious observances were not neglected, Shah Mohi-ud-din being restored to the position of Superior expressly to direct them, and receiving a handsome allowance for so doing.

For some years Shah Mohi-ud-din acquiesced under protest in this arrangement, but just before the expiry of the period of limitation he brought a suit for the restoration to him of the property of the endowment, on the ground that he was not to blame in any way and that the institution being of a religious and family character, Government had no jurisdiction to eject him from his position. The Subordinate Judge found that not only had there been no mismanagement, but also that the dismissal was invalid, as the executive Government was not authorized to remove a manager of an endowment for misconduct, and that in the absence of any express enactment the power of dismissal vests in the Civil Courts. Shah Mohi-ud-din was therefore restored and the Court, making the division between secular and religious objects which the Board of Revenue is empowered to effect under Act XX of 1863, declared that the villages granted by Shah Alam, about half the entire property, should be held for temporal purposes, subject to the superintendence of the local agents, and that the profit of the rest of the lands should

be devoted, free from all external control, to religious acts and uses, including the maintenance of the Superior and of his family. The distinction thus drawn was founded partly on the words of Shah Alam's grant, and partly on the fact that Government in freeing these lands from revenue had declared them to be attached to a secular charity, and again in 1842 had placed them under a special supervision, to which the Superior of the day yielded for a time. This decree was afterwards confirmed on appeal by the High Court.

Much of the property of the endowment has been lost, as one of the Superiors of the *khankah* dying without male issue alienated most of the land of the endowment to his descendants in the female line. The property was recovered for the foundation after prolonged litigation, which ended only when an appeal was made to the Privy Council. Five of the eighteen villages granted by Farrukhsiyar and eight of the forty-one villages given by Shah Alam remain in the possession of descendants of former Superiors and are still held by them as their private property, as the legal advisers of Government, to whom a reference was made, were not in favour of an attempt being made to recover them so long after the original malversation. The total income of the endowment is now about thirty-two thousand rupees, of which about five thousand annually are available for educational purposes.

Sawath.—Village in thana Mohania, police-station Durgauti, close to the Grand Trunk Road. Population (1921) 823. *See* **Durgauti.**

Shergarh.—Situated twenty miles south-west of Sasaram, is a ruined hill fort, which was built by the Emperor Sher Shah. The plateau of Shergarh, which is much lower than that of Rohtasgarh, is about four miles in circumference, and is surrounded by a stone wall with several bastions and fortified *ghats*. The chief ascent is to the north, where a flight of broad stone steps winds up to a great gate on the lower part of the plateau; passing through this, the road passes over a depression, where there is a large tank, and leads through two more strongly fortified gates to the summit of a higher slope on which the palace stands. It is situated on the edge of a precipice and commands a beautiful view over the valley of the Durgauti and the hills beyond; the buildings consist of two square open courtyards, surrounded by four open galleries, which are supported by pillars in front and open into a few

closed rooms behind. Owing to the slope of the ground, the southern courtyard is much higher than the northern one, and again the northern gallery in the latter is lower than the other three. Local tradition asserts that this arrangement was adopted because the northern court was occupied by the ladies of the zanana who could thus easily be watched by the men, while they were prevented from looking into the male apartments. Some of the carvings on the pillars supporting the galleries are of good design and much better than anything of the same kind at Rohtas.

The *taikhanas* or underground rooms inside the palace constitute the most remarkable feature of the building. Most of them receive no light from above, and may have been used as store-rooms; one at least was used as a water-reservoir. One room in the northern courtyard, which, as already stated, is supposed to have been the zanana, was well lighted by means of a skylight, and may have been intended as a place of retreat for the ladies in time of siege or during the heat of the day. Just outside the palace are two open pillared halls, which are said to have been used as a *diwan-khana*, or offices; while close to one of the gates leading into the palace there is a mosque.

Surajpura.—A village four miles north-west of Bikramganj, containing a dispensary, which was opened in July of 1904, and a post-office. Population (1921) 2,908. The village is the headquarters of a Kayastha zamindari family, of which the late head, Raja Rajeswar Prashad Singh, was noted for his public spirit and liberality. He has a worthy successor in the present Raja Radhika Raman Prashad Singh, who is chairman of the Shahabad District Board, while the Raja's younger brother, Kumar Rajivaranjan Prashad Sinha, represents south Shahabad in the Legislative Council. The family is said to have come two hundred years ago from Mirzapur to Surajpura, where they built the existing Rajbari, which Dr. Buchanan saw* in 1812.

Tilothu.—At Tilothu, a village half way between Sasaram and Rohtasgarh, is a mosque of the time of Aurangzeb, the date of which corresponds to 1677 A.D. The palace is, however, mentioned in older records, and from the inscription on a tomb, at the foot of Rohtasgarh (1638 A.D.), we learn that it was a part of the *jagir* of Ikhlas Khan, who was then the

---

* Eastern India, Vol. I, p. 415.

kiladar or commandant of the Rohtas fort. Here was the residence of the *kiladar*; in later years Raja Shah Mal lived here, where his descendants still reside. The history of the Tilothu estate has been given in Chapter XI. Babu Radha Prasad Sinha, the present holder of the estate, which is now under management of the Court of Wards, is sixth in descent from Raja Shah Mal. He still has in his possession the letter signed by Hector Munro, written in August of 1764, which led to the surrender of Rohtasgarh; and the *sanad*, bearing the joint seal of Shah Alam and the Company, granting Haveli Rohtas in *jagir* to his ancestor.

Tutrahi.—About five miles west of Tilothu, where the Tutrahi, a branch of the Kudra river, leaves the hills, is a place of the same name sacred to the goddess Sitala. It lies at the head of a gorge half a mile long, where the stream falls over a sheer precipice 180 to 250 feet high, and collects in a pool at the bottom. High upon the rocks, on a small natural terrace, stands a small statue of Mahishamardini, or Jagaddhatri, as the goddess is called in an inscription close by. From this inscription (1158 A.D.) we learn that the Nayaka Pratapadhavala, a local chief of whom there are other records at Rohtasgarh and on the Tarachandi rock near Sasaram, made a pilgrimage to the Tutrahi falls accompanied by his whole household, five female slaves, his treasurer, his door-keeper and his Court *pandit*. Other inscriptions, several centuries later, are found at the same place round the figure of a female deity rudely carved in the rock.

APPENDICES.

1. Railway stations.
2. Post and Telegraph Offices.
3. Principal roads and bungalows.
4. Polymetrical table of distances.

APPENDIX I.

LIST OF RAILWAY STATIONS.

East Indian Railway.

MAIN LINE.

Station.	Miles from Calcutta.
Koilwar ...	... 360
Kulburia ...	... 363
Arrah ...	... 369
Karisath ...	... 375
Behea ...	... 382
Banahi ...	... 386
Raghunathpur	... 391
Twining Ganj	... 396
Dumraon ...	... 401
Baruna ...	... 406
Buxar ...	... 411
Chausa ...	... 418

GRAND CHORD LINE.

Station.	Miles from Calcutta.
Dehri on Son ...	... 345
Karwandia ...	... 352
Sasaram ...	... 356
Kumhau ...	... 361
Shiu Sagar Road	... 365
Kudra ...	... 372
Pusauli ...	... 377
Muthani ...	... 383
Bhabhua Road	... 386
Durgauti ...	... 391
Karmnasa ...	... 399

ARRAH-SASARAM LIGHT RAILWAY.

Distance from Arrah Jn.	Station.
	Arrah
7	Kasap
12	Garhani
18	Charpokhri
24	Piru
30	Mohnee Kulan
36	Bikramgunj
43	Sujhauli
49	Garh Nokha
54	Kharadih
61	Sasaram Jn.

DEHRI-ROHTAS LIGHT RAILWAY.

Station.	Miles from Dehri.
Dehri-on-Sone.	
Dehri City ...	... 1½
Tilothu Bazar	... 11½
Tilothu ...	... 12
Tumba ...	... 17½
Banjari ...	... 21
Rohtas ...	... 24

APPENDIX II.

POST AND TELEGRAPH OFFICES.

I.—COMBINED POST AND TELEGRAPH OFFICES.

Agiaon.
Arrah.
Arrah Chawk.
Arrah-Nawada.
Arrah R. S.
Bhabhua.
Bibia.
Bikramganj.
Buxar.
Buxar R. S.
Buxar (Gajadharganj).
Chausa.
Dehri.
Dumraon.
Garhani.
Jagdishpur.
Koath.
Koilwar.
Kudra.
Mohania.
Murar.
Nasriganj.
Nawanagar.
Nokha.
Piru.
Raghunathpur.
Sasaram.
Shiusagar E. I.

NOTE.—All the Railway stations of the East Indian Railway are Telegraph offices.

II.—POST OFFICES (OTHER THAN COMBINED OFFICES).

Aburpul.
Adhara.
Akhari.
Amao.
Athar.
Ayer.
Babhnaul
Babura.
Babuara.
Banjari.
Barhampur.
Barhara.
Barka-Dumra.
Barka-Rajpur.
Belauti.
Benwalia.
Bhagwanpur.
Bihta-English (Kolodehri).
Buxar Jail.
Chainpur.
Chakia-Bazar.
Chand.
Chandi.
Chenari.
Churamanpur.
Dalippur.
Darigrau.
Dehri R. S.
Dinara.
Dhamar.
Dhansi.
Dumra.
Dumri.
Durgauti.
Ghosia-Kalam.
Gunri.
Hitwa-Rajpur.
Itarhi.
Jitaura.
Kachwa.
Kalyanpur.
Khargarh.
Kheri.
Khutaha.
Kochas.
Koran-Saraia.
Kori.
Kulharia.
Kumboila.
Mahnar.
Mahda.
Manjhwari.
Manoharpur.
Motha.
Natawar.
Nawadabad.
Naya-Bhojpur.
Naya-Mahamadpur.
Neazipur.
Nimez.
Naon.
Rajpur.
Ramgarh.
Ranisagar.
Rohtas (Akbarpur).
Sahar.
Sakla.
Sarinja.
Sasaram-Bazar.
Shahpur-Pati.
Sikraul.
Simri.
Sinha.
Surajpura.
Tilothu.
Udwantnagar.

APPENDIX III.

PRINCIPAL ROADS AND BUNGALOWS.

Class.	Name of road.	Length (miles).	Dak or Inspection Bungalow.	Number of bed-rooms.
1	Grand Trunk Road	56¼	Dehri (1), 338 m. from Calcutta.	2
			Dehri (2), 339 m. (staging bungalow).	2
			Sasaram (1), 349 m. (dak bungalow).	2
			Sasaram (2) 350 m. ...	2
			Jahanabad (Kudra), 365 m.	1
			Muthani, 374¼ m. ...	2
			Mohania, 376 m. ...	2
			Durgauti, 386¼ m. ...	2
1	Arrah-Sasaram ...	61½	Garhani, 14 m. from Arrah.	1
			Piro, 25 m. ...	1
			Bikramganj, 38 m. ...	2
			Nokha, 48 m. ...	2
1	Arrah-Chapra Ghat	11	Arrah (dak bungalow) ..	4
1	Piro-Bihia ...	17½		
1	Nasriganj-Dumraon	40½	Saryah, 8 m. ...	1
			Kawai, 16 m. ...	2
			Jaisri, 31 m. ...	2
			Nasriganj	2
2A	Koilwar-Akbarpur ...	91	Sandes, 14 m. ...	2
			Burohi, 25 m. ...	2
			Danwar, 48 m. ...	2
			Nasriganj, 52 m. ...	2
			Chilbilla, 59 m. ...	2
			Dehri (above) ...	2
			Tilothu, 76 m. ...	2
			Akbarpur, 91 m. ...	2

Class.	Name of road.	Length (miles).	Dak or Inspection Bungalow.	Number of bed-rooms.
1A	Mohania Bhabhua ...	10½	Mohania	2
			Bhabhua	2
	Koilwar-Chausa ...	1—18½ 2A—37	Buxar (dak bungalow) ...	4
			Buxar (inspection bungalow).	2
			Dumraon	2
			Barahpur	2
2A	Chausa-Sasaram ...	41¼	Chausa	2
			Kochus, 20 m. ...	2
2A	Bikramganj-Mohania	41	Bikramganj (above) ...	2
			Dhangain (1 m. from Bikramganj).	2
			Dinarah, 13 m. ...	2
			Kochas, 22 m. ...	2
			Parsathua, 29 m. ...	2
			Mohania (above) ...	2
1A	Dharahra-Bahiyara	5¼		
2B	Sinha-Arrah ...	8		
2B	Khaira-Ekaunia ...	20		
2A	Garhani-Bihia ...	17		
2A	Tenduni-Garhani ...	10	Baligaon	2
2B	Nanijor-Puranda ...	33¼	Raghunathpur ...	2

98

APPENDIX IV.

POLYMETRICAL TABLE FOR SHAHABAD DISTRICT.

Chief Public Offices, *viz.*, Collector's Court in station marked (*a*), Subdivisional Officer's Court in station marked (*b*) and thanas in the remaining station.		Bhabhua.	Bikramganj.	Buxar.	Dehri.	Dumraon.	Karghar.	Mohania.	Piru.	Sasaram.	Shahpur.	Distance from the nearest Railway station.	Name of nearest Railway station.
		Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	les.	
Arrah (*a*) (*d*) ...	Rail	90½	35½	43	71½	33	60½	90½	23½	60½	14	1	Arrah.
	Road	11¾	2	2¾	2¾	2¾	15	1½	1½	1¾	7¾		
	Canal	...	...	...	58	...	...	...	...	...	...		
	Road direct ...	103¾	38¾	45	75¾	36	68	93¾	26	63¾	19		
Bhabhua (*b*) (*d*) ...	Rail	...	30	90½	40¾	100½	30	...	67	30	104½	10½	Bhabhua Road.
	Road	...	35½	12	12	11¾	24½	...	10½	10¾	17		
	Road direct ...	...	65	57	52	70	37½	10½	78	40	102½		
Bikramganj ...	Rail	...	...	78½	36	68½	...	55	12	25	49½	1	Bikramganj.
	Road	...	...	2½	2½	2¼	...	1½	1	1½	7½		
	Canal	...	...	34½	34¾	...	...	...	...	...	...		
	Road direct ...	...	...	39½	37	26½	29½	55	12½	25	37		
Buxar... (*b*) (*c*) (*d*) ...	Rail	...	...	...	114½	10	7	90½	66½	103½	29	1½	Buxar.
	Road	...	...	...	3	2¾	28½	2	1½	1¾	8		
	Canal	...	...	...	57¾	...	...	...	...	...	...		
	Road direct ...	...	...	...	76½	13	35½	48½	50	64½	26½		
Dehri ...	Rail	...	...	...	...	104½	11	40¾	48	11	85½	1½	Dehri.
	Road	...	...	...	...	2¾	15½	2	1½	2	8		
	Road direct ...	...	...	...	...	63½	25½	42	49½	12	74		
Dumraon (*d*). ...	Rail	...	...	...	...	...	17	100½	56½	93½	19	1¼	Dumraon.
	Road	...	...	...	...	...	28¼	1¾	1¼	1¾	7¾		
	Road direct ...	...	...	...	...	...	48½	61½	37	51½	17½		

APPENDIX IV.—*concld.*

POLYMETRICAL TABLE FOR SHAHABAD DISTRICT—*concld.*

CHIEF PUBLIC OFFICES, *viz.*, Collector's Court in station marked (*a*), Subdivisional Officer's Court in station marked (*b*) and thanas in the remaining station.		Bhabhua.	Bikramganj.	Buxar.	Dehri.	Dumraon.	Karghar.	Mohania.	Piru.	Sasaram.	Shahpur.	Distance from the nearest Railway station.	Name of nearest Railway station.
		Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	
Karghar ...	Rail	...	...	...	...	...	...	30	37	...	74½	14	Sasaram.
	Road	...	...	...	...	...	...	15	14	...	20½		
	Road direct ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	28	42	13½	62		
Mohania ...	Rail	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	67	30	104	½	Bhabhua Road.
	Road	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	½	1	7		
	Road direct ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	67½	30	92		
Piru ...	Rail	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	37	37½	...	Piru.
	Road	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	½	6½		
	Road direct ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	37½	24¼		
Sasaram (*b*) (*c*) (*d*). ...	Rail	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	74½	½	Sasaram.
	Road	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7		
	Road direct ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	62		
Shahpur ...	......	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6½	Behea.

NOTE.—The distance given "by road direct" is not necessarily by the shortest route in all seasons; but it is the shortest route by the best available road.

(*a*) District headquarters; (*b*) Subdivisional headquarters (*c*) Munsifis (*d*) Municipalities.

INDEX.

C

8